

The LEARNING HOUSE

MONTHLY FOR MODERN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

DECEMBER 1964

No. 4

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by A. WELLIN

Children of the "Children"

by J. S. ANDERSON

Teacher for Sargeant — a Personality Report

by W. WANDERETTE

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by M. L. BUTTS

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THE CLEARING HOUSE is published at 450 Ahnapp St., Menasha, Wis. Editorial office: Fairleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck, N.J. Published monthly from September through May of each year.

Subscription price: \$4.50 a year. Two years for \$7.60 if cash accompanies order. Single copies 60 cents. Subscription for less than a year will be charged at the single-copy rate. For subscriptions in groups of ten or more, write for special rates. Foreign countries and Canada, \$5.10 a year, payment in American funds. Printed in U.S.A.

Entered as second-class matter at the post office at Menasha, Wis., under the act of March 3, 1879 accepted for mailing at the special rate of postage authorized October 4, 1955.

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The Clearing House

A journal for modern junior and senior high schools

VOL. 31

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NOTICE TO WRITERS

We welcome contributions from our readers. In every issue we publish teachers' and administrators' articles that report good practices, interesting experiments, fact-finding and action research, or new twists to old ideas. Many of our readers have achieved results in their classrooms and in their school systems which should be known in thousands of other high schools.

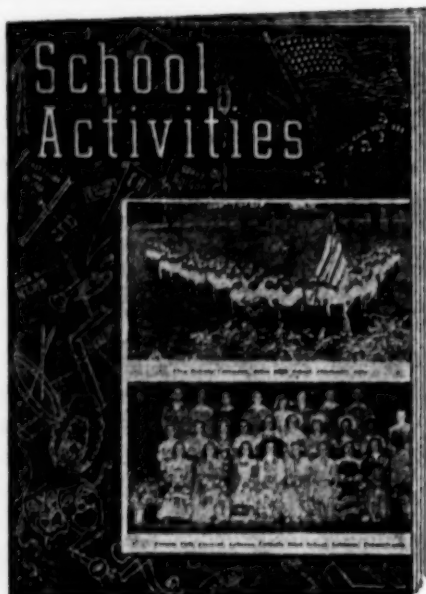
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Topics, of course, should relate to junior- or senior-high-school programs, services, or personnel.

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Continuity in the Whole School Program

By

CLARENCE H. SPAIN

IN ORDER TO GIVE the student continuity of growth, we talk about integration of subject matter and sequence of subject matter. "Integration" means forming or uniting into one whole, and "sequence" means consecutiveness or following one after another. It is all right to use these terms as we discuss subject matter from which comes the large proportion of the students' experiences, but we should always keep in mind that both integration and sequence take place within the student. This is a fundamental assumption.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Continuity in education can be realized only in the educational experience of the individual student because a student can respond on no level but his own. The problem of continuity has been discussed by educators since President Eliot of Harvard emphasized it in discussions with the college faculty in the 1880's. It has been and probably will be a stubborn problem so long as individual pupils must adapt to schools rather than the other way around.

The author of this article is one of the leaders in junior-high-school education in the nation. He is the principal of the Binford Junior High School, in Richmond, Virginia.

Another assumption we must make, if we are to improve what we are doing, is that the best educational program has not yet been devised and the best way to teach has not yet been discovered. We must be whole-somely dissatisfied. All of the other great professions and sciences are constantly questioning their methods and results, and we must be equally critical of ourselves and vigilant in the search for the truth.

We, in America, are controlled only by democratic ideals and limited only by our abilities and visions. We have never known what it was to have a curriculum planned at the national level as was true in Japan and Germany under the militarists, and is now in Russia under the whims of a dictator. All of us would do well to read Ed Mowrer's article on "Our Three-Story Heritage" in the *Saturday Review* for August 1, 1953. Among our greatest heritages is the fact that in America we have a higher regard for the individual than does any other country. In the beginning of our democracy we firmly planted this ideal into the basic law, and it was the first time in the history of the world that this concept was ever accepted by those in the seat of governmental power. If we want our young folks to grow up to love, live, and defend our democracy, we must, in our educational programs, give them ample opportunities for developing into well-inte-

grated personalities, able and willing to carry the heavy responsibilities incumbent on all citizens in a democracy.

In considering the problem of continuity in the school program, each teacher, of course, needs to know thoroughly the characteristics of students of the age level he is teaching. He must also know the developmental tendencies of those older and younger. Without this knowledge, how is he to interpret the records of his learners' activities when they were younger and how is he able to give sound guidance for future growth in the light of present concerns? If the learner is to achieve continuity as he moves along in his educational program, a teacher cannot afford to know solely one age group. Only through familiarity with past experiences and with possible future experiences can teachers attain for the individual what may be called "proper balance," avoiding of unnecessary overlapping and repetition.

I believe we have done a fairly good job in attaining continuity on the vertical scale, that is, using a sequence of subject matter from grade one vertically up through grade twelve. The more difficult task is to see that continuity is attained horizontally. For a student to attain continuity horizontally, all of the subjects he takes must be correlated.

Continuity in learning is an individual, internal affair, which is to say that only the individual can manage his own continuity in learning, and, of course, a student can respond on no level but his own. We hear a lot about reading readiness in the early elementary school and rightly so. Yet readiness is a factor in all learning. As we make arrangements to help the students in attaining continuity, we should take into account many factors that make for readiness, some of which are:

(1) The student must be maturationally and developmentally ready for the experience.

(2) He must be experientially ready. His experiences in home, community, and

school must have prepared him for the experience open to him.

(3) He must have developed concepts which allow him to deal with the new experiences.

(4) He must be psychologically ready for the available experience, secure in his interpersonal relationships.

The above points are taken from Bulletin #87 of the Association for Childhood Education. This bulletin should be read by all who are interested in how to promote continuity in learning.

In search for helps in the educational literature on this topic, I found that most writers recommended what is called the "core curriculum." In general the recommendations concur in this fashion: Use the required core program for three-quarters of the students' time in seventh and eighth grades, one-half of the students' time in the ninth and tenth grades, and one-third of the students' time in the eleventh and twelfth grades, assuming that the core program had occupied the major portion of the students' time in the elementary grades. The core-type program was started by the Progressive Education Association. This association had to drop its name and then disband because a number of people with influence, who did not understand education, began a concerted attack. The latest term being used by those who wish to improve learning by providing opportunity for continuity is "life adjustment education." I was asked recently at a national conference of principals if I had a life adjustment education type of program in my school. I replied, "I hope so, but please don't name it that."

I do not recommend any particular type of organization that may best provide opportunity for continuity of learning, for most all types of organizations, which have bells ringing at stated times, grade placement, report card grades, and the like, are barriers rather than aids to continuity. I agree with Dr. Alice Miel of Teachers College, Columbia, when she says, "It is my

considered belief that the judgment of the teacher using effective processes of group and individual planning is our only dependable source of continuity." Thus it is necessary for the teacher himself to have attained continuity. He must be emotionally well balanced, ethical in his relationships with other teachers, and co-operative by the very nature of his continuity with students and parents.

Not only must the teacher exemplify these attributes in his own classroom situation but there must be a group approach to curriculum planning within each school and among schools in the same system. Proper continuity opportunities for the student cannot occur when the faculty has not attained continuity and does not work together as a complete whole. In each school the faculty members working with one another and with students and parents are members of a team; team planning takes place in various combinations. The group approach to curriculum planning tends to cancel out biases and to open up new choices. Periodically groups of parents and teachers should sit down together to discuss the general direction in which they believe their children should be developed. The school faculty should carry this planning further by considering what areas of experience might be stressed in a given year. It is most desirable to have the students participate in the planning. Oftentimes it is helpful to have outside experts on curriculum planning to assist.

Not only should the faculty of each individual school work in this fashion but achieving continuity means providing desirable interrelationships between schools. Gaps that occur between the elementary school, the junior high, and the senior high can be very harmful to learners. I have seen children come from the self-contained elementary schoolrooms to our highly departmentalized junior high school and for a period of time they were so frustrated as to show retrogression in growth. There is no defense for a curriculum that allows this to

happen. The curriculum must be conceived as a continuum from elementary school, through high school, and on into college or life situations, each part growing out of past experiences and contributing to subsequent experiences. All these parts of the educational process must be so close that there is an operating unity.

To overcome the gaps between grades and between schools Dr. John J. Brooks is now conducting an experiment in the New Lincoln School of New York City, where grade placement has been abolished. He calls his system "interage grouping." Grade placement designations are kept only in the cumulative folders, and students are placed in groups where it is felt the student will have the best experiences. Dr. Brooks says overly hostile or aggressive children are spread through the groups and not concentrated in one. Also students who need to have experience as leaders or as followers can be placed in the group offering the better opportunity. He claims that this interage grouping demands of the teacher his best effort in meeting individual needs and abilities, which is an essential for continuous learning. He states that the younger students respond to the stimulus of the older members and the older members find new ways of growing as they assist the young students. Both age groups achieve new levels of satisfaction as they become useful to the group as a whole.

Another good description of a school program that was planned to offer opportunities of continuity for its students is found in Dr. Marion Nesbitt's book, *A Public School for Tomorrow*, a description of the Maury School in Richmond, Virginia. I recommend her book to both teachers and lay people interested in improving instruction.

For an example, here is how one school worked at the problem of correlating music with the other subject fields. First, the vocal music teacher was asked to make suggestions of ways in which music may be related to other subjects. This list was mimeographed

and given to each teacher. Of course other ideas came from members of the faculty. One period each day this music teacher was scheduled to work with other teachers to integrate music with other subjects. This is the list of suggestions that was given.

IDEAS FOR CORRELATION OF MUSIC WITH OTHER SUBJECTS

By PATTIE BRIGHTWELL

English

1. Speech and singing relation. Improving speech through singing.
Movie—"Your Voice."
2. Descriptive writing related to descriptive music.
3. Poems set to music (a partial list):
Down by the Sally Gardens William Butler Yeats
I Heard the Bells (Christmas carol)
..... Longfellow
Joyful, Joyful We Adore Thee
..... Henry van Dyke
Four Things Henry van Dyke
Dear Lord and Father of Mankind
..... John Greenleaf Whittier
Drink to Me Only with Thine Eyes
..... Ben Jonson
Roadways John Maschfield
The Night Wind Robert Louis Stevenson
The Vagabond Robert Louis Stevenson
Requiem Robert Louis Stevenson
Trees Joyce Kilmer
Recessional Rudyard Kipling
It Was a Lover and His Lass (from *As You Like It*) Shakespeare
My Heart's in the Highlands Robert Burns
Stars of the Summer Night Longfellow
When Love is Kind Thomas Moore
In Memoriam Sir Walter Scott
Little Boy Blue Eugene Field

Social Studies

1. Music of colonial and revolutionary periods
2. Music of the pioneers
3. Music of Civil War period
4. Songs of travel and transport
5. State songs
6. Music brought to America by early settlers
7. Songs showing influence of varied occupations on development of folk music
8. Songs about famous people such as Washington, Daniel Boone, and so on
9. Music of Virginia
10. Native Indian music and how it has influenced our own

Science

1. Sound and music
2. Development of musical instruments
3. Movie—"Music in the Wind"
4. Vibration and pitch—how affected by atmospheric conditions

Homemaking

1. Importance of music in the home
2. What kinds of music should have a place in the home
3. How behavior in the home may be affected by music
4. Music related to child care
5. Music for parties and other social activities
6. Songs homemakers should know

Art

1. Relation of design, form, and color in music and art
2. Interpreting music through painting
3. Movie—"Design to Music"
4. Comparison in treatment of similar subjects by artists and musicians

Mathematics

1. Measured beat in music
2. Kinds of notes and their relation to numbers
3. Time signatures and mathematics

General Language

Folk songs of all foreign countries.

This is a report on how it worked out, or what happened:

(1) In a homemaking class, a group of students who were studying child care came several times to the music room. They were taught songs suitable for little children; they played singing games and learned some new ones; they examined lists of recordings suitable for use in the home where there are young children and listened to recordings of this type. "Do's and don'ts" for teaching music to youngsters were discussed. At the end of these sessions the students made notes which were added to their regular files.

(2) Poetry was being studied in the English class. A number of students were taught the musical setting of poems they were memorizing, and after learning to sing them acceptably, sang them for the whole group. Comparison was made between the rhythmic flow of music and of words. Two selections of descriptive music were chosen by the music teacher, and recordings of them were played, each on a different occasion. After the pupils listened carefully to the first playing, the music was repeated softly a number of times. Original verse was written by each one as he listened. It was most interesting to observe how many

caught the spirit if not the thought of the composer of both selections. The music selected was "The Dance Macabre" by Saint-Saëns. Twelve out of seventeen children, none of whom had heard this music before, wrote poems showing the sombre spirit of the music. "At the Brook" by Boisdéffre was the second selection, and fourteen out of seventeen wrote poems about water, rain, or the actual thoughts the composer had in his mind. Later the poems were rewritten and read aloud in finished form.

(3) Dramatics classes doing choral readings were taught music which fitted into the selections read.

(4) A social studies class whose unit of study was pioneer life in America was taught a number of pioneer songs. Others were taught music of the colonial period. Still another group studying occupations will work with the music teacher on the influence of occupations on the development of folk music.

(5) An arithmetic class learned how music and numbers are related. They were shown how mathematics plays a part in the measured beat of music, in time signatures, and in kinds of notes. They also sang songs in which these various points had been illustrated.

(6) A science class will make a study of sound as related to music, also the relationship of vibration and pitch. A movie, "Music in the Wind," will be shown jointly to the science and music classes.

(7) In the art classes there will be a study of the relationship of design and

form in music and in art. The students will also do original painting to recorded music.

(8) During posture week the physical education classes came to the music room where they learned the importance of good posture in singing and ways of achieving it. They sang a number of songs during which they demonstrated correct posture both for sitting and for standing.

These are only a few of the endless ways in which one subject, music, may be integrated with other subjects to make both more meaningful. Similar illustrations could be given for all other subject areas.

In conclusion let me summarize what I have tried to say:

Continuity is an individual, internal, continuous process.

Only those individuals who have attained a high proportion of continuity will ever make good democratic citizens.

That all individuals be respected and held in high regard is the only tenable democratic view.

To teach an individual properly you must know him.

Continuity takes place both on the vertical and on the horizontal plane.

Readiness for learning is axiomatic.

Experiments in continuity always favor the core-type programs.

The teacher is the most important factor in providing continuity for students.

In the words of Dr. Nesbitt, "We cannot chart their course but we shall forever hope to equip them with wings for their flight."



The Teacher. Just as the doctor feels the heartbeat grow stronger under his ministrations and is overwhelmed by the goodness and the privilege vouchsafed to him in the performance of this service for another, so each person who teaches has an awareness of this same goodness and privilege. He knows that he lives in another being, and such knowledge fills him with ineffable love and gratitude. It counterbalances all the drudgery, the heartaches and the sacrifices which are a part of every worthwhile profession.—Excerpt from an address delivered by SAMUEL B. GOULD, president of Antioch College.

Truddi and Her Hostility

By EVA B. WELLIN

PUFFINESS DESCRIBED TRUDDI as she took her place in the seventh grade among the other twelve year olds. From the forward curve of her neck to the roundness of her shoulders to the shapeless clothes belted at the waistline, she had the appearance of a flour sack tied in the middle. The "curved line" in this case was far from a "line of beauty."

When outside reading and the use of the library were mentioned by the teacher as important parts of the term's work, the antagonism between Truddi and the class was openly stated by all to all. Truddi, looking straight ahead, volunteered in loud, defiant tones that she read more books than anybody else in class. The class confirmed this, but added that she always knew all the answers, got all the A's, and, except teachers, nobody in class or neighborhood liked her. Truddi thereupon informed the teacher that she was too smart for them and they didn't have anything to talk about with her because she read so much.

What a kettle of fish!

Truddi's voice was arrogant with unshed tears, and her unhidden contempt toward her classmates betokened much unsureness. She was scared, unhappy, and afraid.

EDITOR'S NOTE

We often hear it said that the proof of an education lies in the changes in behavior of the learner. It is much easier to say than to achieve those changes in behavior. Yet the resources of a good teacher can lead a hostile pupil to become a well-adjusted one. The story of Truddi is a true one. Only the names have been changed. Mrs. Wellin has been a teacher in the Paterson, New Jersey, public school system for over twenty-five years.

Her former teachers, agreeing that she always knew the answers, shrugged off all other matters as irrelevant. Her health record was good. She wore steel-rimmed glasses that made her look like a child playing "grandma." To help improve her posture, corrective exercises for home practice were gotten from the physical education department. These were supplemented by classroom reminders from the teacher.

To get both the class and Truddi to see her as a person instead of a bookworm proudly flaunting A's, they must look at her, not just listen to her. From the shapeless, puffy mass one feature was played up—Truddi's hair! It was a magnificently vibrant, coppery red, whose qualities were muted by the tightly drawn braids twisted about her head.

On a special day, for the morning assembly, the teacher asked Truddi to wear her hair loose as in a picture of *Alice in Wonderland*. When she appeared in class with her unbound hair almost reaching to her waist and every strand gleaming like spun gold in the sunshine, the effect was electric. Marks, books, and knowing were forgotten in the lavish display of the beauty of her hair. All delighted in it. Truddi even tried a smile. Class rules required it braided for the rest of the term, but Truddi had something else than marks. It was a novel experience for her.

Next the teacher asked for a conference with Truddi's mother. The mother, a pretty, dark-haired woman, boasted at once of Truddi's superior mentality as evinced by the fact that she had no one in class or neighborhood who could converse with or be friendly with her because she knew so much more, for she was always reading books. Thereupon the teacher tried to show the mother what an unhappy child Truddi

was. She pointed out that as soon as Truddi got home from school, she cried and complained. The mother was surprised that the teacher knew.

But the mother did not take kindly to the suggestion that she try to help Truddi make friends by having some of the girls in class come into the house on Friday after school for a cup of cocoa and a piece of cake. The mother pointed out the impracticability of this idea, for Truddi's superior knowledge and book reading left nothing for her to talk about with the girls. She'd be bored. Try it anyway, the teacher urged. The mother brushed the suggestion aside.

So the teacher bluntly said that outside of books Truddi was dull, especially when it came to getting along with people with whom she had to live day in and day out. Furthermore, the teacher implied that much of the fault lay with the adults who were supposed to help Truddi, but didn't.

Then the teacher suggested that Truddi join a Y club and make new social contacts; and, if the mother could afford it, that Truddi be given three months' training in the classic ballet to correct her posture. All suggestions were sidetracked and Truddi's prodigious reading was again admired by her parent. Finally, the teacher spoke of the beauty of Truddi's hair, and suggested that the style of braiding be varied and that a ribbon or barrette be added on occasion to draw attention to it.

The interview ended on this note, which was a slight cover up for the mother's insulted ego.

Promotions at the term's end brought the teacher a call to the principal's office. Truddi's mother had asked for a double promotion. Truddi didn't have any joy in life other than her knowledge of superior marks, and a double promotion would let the parents in the neighborhood know how smart Truddi was. The teacher said that the principal permitted the charm of the sweet-faced woman to blind him to the fact

that she was too lazy to help her daughter live a life fuller than the joy of a school mark gotten from a book. Annoyance all around was clearly marked. The teacher was instructed to think it over.

The principal was the administrator. As such, he could and would promote the child. He wanted the teacher's recommendation only for the sake of general morale. What of Truddi? Truly her only delight was in getting ahead of her classmates. The next morning the teacher appeared at the principal's office and said that she'd gladly recommend Truddi for a double promotion, her marks warranted it; but—would the principal *instruct* Truddi's mother to get that cake and cocoa for Truddi's social?

No more was heard of Truddi until a year after graduation. When the teacher arrived at a Y girls' club that she was going to address, she found a very pleasant, slim, spectacled, neatly dressed girl, with a most charming smile, putting the last touches to the desk before she left. After the meeting, several members wanted to know what the teacher thought of Truddi.

"Where is she?" the teacher asked.

"She isn't here now, but she was in the room when you came, and she was outside looking in while you spoke."

Two years later, while waiting in line in a bank, a stout, sweet-faced woman came up to the teacher and profusely thanked her for showing such an interest in her daughter and for pointing out the way to help her.

"What a cake can do!" said the mother laughingly.

High-school graduation time came for Truddi's class. At a bus terminal the teacher was met by a classmate who was on her way to Truddi's house to arrange Truddi's hair in a new style. Did the teacher know that with one brush, Truddi's hair actually glowed? The teacher wanted to know if Truddi had many friends.

"Yes, indeed," said the classmate. "We all like her. She's in the upper tenth of the

graduating class," continued the classmate with much pride.

"What! Not first place?" and both laughed.

Continuing to laugh in a very pleased way, the classmate said, "Truddi *dates* a bit, too."

And so Truddi became a person.



Sponsored All-Night Parties—Are They a Menace?

By M. F. CODDINGTON

(Centerville, S.D.)

The many evolutions in education during the past century or so have been steady, splendid, and at times spectacular. Administrators and teachers have been run through a tremendous mill of changes in both the curricular and the extra-curricular programs, and most of the developments have demonstrated well-planned, constructive thinking. One wonders, however, if we have not gone astray on tolerating certain practices in which there is obviously an opportunity for the encouragement of a *moral menace*. I refer to the apparently increasing practice of all-night parties sponsored oftentimes by well-meaning adults as individuals or by organizations outside the school but publicized as activities for a school group. The justification for such shindigs, if any, is that the old folks (parents and others) want to be good sports, entertain the young folks, and thus keep them (at least one night a year) from the danger of driving madly "hither and yon all through the night."

It is our contention that these all-night parties are a moral menace to the majority of the youth who participate and that, if the truth were known, most of us parents feel very keenly that they are. Historically, the colleges of this country sponsored junior-senior banquets. Some years later the high schools followed suit. The next step was to take some of the dignity from such an affair (the poor adolescent just couldn't take that all at once) and then to follow it with a school dance (to keep the kids busy and to give the roughneck element a chance to let off steam by doing some drinking, to avoid dangerous driving, and so on). The next step apparently demanded by the younger set was an all-night party (or else we'll go out and kill ourselves with your automobile and such). Thus, instead of going home even at an unreasonable hour for athletes and other young school citizens,

the children from broken homes and other youngsters whose parents have loose standards themselves or have little control of their offspring, decided to make a night of it by having some adult group, such as the service club, the legion, the auxiliary, or another well-meaning group, take over about midnight, determined to have such activities as would wear out the kids (as well as the sponsors, both physically and mentally) with an all-night party.

If such all-night parties are justified, why doesn't some church group sponsor them? If they are the "thing to do," why shouldn't the school supervise them without outside aid? We hear people talk rather glibly about the younger generation and juvenile delinquency, yet we as educators sit idly by and through our attitude actually endorse this practice. We really pass the buck on to other adults, who are not trained professionally and do not have legal authority to handle any group on such an occasion. Surely not all the broken homes and other heartaches in store for some of the youth in their future can be attributed to this type of endeavor, but certainly such all-night affairs could be a contributing factor.

Any solution? As for me and my house (and we have children in both high school and college), we would prefer to have our children come home at a reasonable hour after having a fine time at a formal banquet and not have them feel that the evening is incomplete or that we have shortchanged them if the all-night revelry were vetoed. When there are so many fine things to do, why encourage a practice that is obviously a detriment to many of the youth involved?

So, fellow parents, let's go on record as opposing all-night parties for high school students since we know that such functions are a moral menace to many youth of our land.

A Remedy Is Suggested for MATH. CARELESSNESS

By GLADYS RISDEN

LEAH WAS FAILING in seventh-grade arithmetic. "She makes so many careless mistakes," her teachers scolded.

6	6	6	8	8	8	7	8
7	6	5	3	2	7	8	8
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
12	12	12	10	10	15	16	16

The foregoing were taken from a single paper. If a child knows that 6 and 6 are 12, how can she say 6 and 7 or 6 and 5 would be 12? Surely she must know that 8 and 2 couldn't be the same as 8 and 3. And how could she think 7 and 8 would be the same as 8 and 8?

Parents and teachers "tried everything"—rewards, penalties, reasoning, having her write 100 times each combination missed. They threatened to keep her in the seventh grade another year. They shamed her before the other children. They put her in a remedial class for more drill on funda-

mental combinations.

Then they took her to a tutor.

Why does Leah make careless mistakes, the tutor asked herself. Was she counting to find answers? Leah said she wasn't. The tutor watched. "You wouldn't be wiggling your big toe, would you Leah?" the tutor asked casually. The child reddened. Toe wiggles and word names were coinciding to 10; then fatigue began—one or the other slowed, co-ordination was lost. Children who persist in counting to find answers generally give themselves away, no matter how adroit the counting, by careless mistakes, mistakes of one too many or one too few.

Children who count do not do so from choice. They do so by necessity. Counting is the only way they can get answers.

Generally they are children who have no group sense. *Three* is not a group to be recognized as *three* at a glance in a fraction of a second. *Three* is *one* and *one* and *one*. Watch them as they look at three objects and you can see the shifts as they focus their eyes on each in turn. The child who sees three as a group makes a single focus. The child who can see three as a group generally masters his combinations. He can remember the answers. Some children who see not the group but the aggregations of ones do remember answers if they have excellent rote memories. They remember answers, but the words they say have no meaning for them. They are destined to have other difficulties—inability to do story problems, for example.

The children who have not developed group-sense frequently have suffered impairment of visual perception. They can-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Last year Leah was a pupil of the author. She is typical of the fifty or so youth of average and higher I.Q.'s to whom Dr. Ridsen has given guidance. These children have had minimal brain injuries. Most of them have been able to catch up with their class in a year or so and do average or better work thereafter. Most of them have difficulties in learning all the three R's. Often teachers say, "They could if they would." Therein lies the tragedy, according to the author, who has had thirty years of experience as teacher, supervisor, and school psychologist and whose writings are well known in educational journals. Her home is in Vermilion, Ohio.

not see three blocks at a single glance. There are roadblocks in the paths by which the "makings" are integrated, i.e., put together to make the image of threeness. Such roadblocks can be bypassed. The makings can get to the integration centers over other circuits if the child is given the needed opportunity to work with groups of objects. Leah's tutor had specialized in helping these children learn to bypass the roadblocks that had been forcing them to count to find answers.

Was there a group of three which Leah could see at a single focus? The tutor experimented. Yes, she could see three bright-colored inch-cubes arranged variously on a six-inch white mat. She saw ones, not threes, when the same blocks were arranged in wider radius, one an eight-inch mat, placed against a black table; when unpainted blocks were used; when pennies, checkers, or buttons were arranged on a six-inch white mat. Conclusion: Seeing a group would depend upon objects used, contrast with background, radius of group, and whether the objects were three dimensional. Further experimentation showed she could see two and three groups of twos and threes when the selected objects were three dimensional, and were arranged with strongly contrasting background within a three-inch radius.

Leah's co-operation was the next problem. Twelve year olds with histories of school failure are generally highly sensitive to doing "baby" stuff. The tutor explained to Leah the nature of the impairment in visual perception which had caused her arithmetic failures over the years, told of others who had mastered arithmetic in spite of similar handicap by learning to see groups instead of ones. Leah's reaction: "I haven't been getting along too well. If there is something you can do that will help me get along better, I'm willing to try."

So daily practice sessions of thirty minutes in seeing groups were begun. First twos and threes, then fours, fives and sixes

grouped into random arrangements of twos and threes were identified on flash exposures, selected from stock piles with a single quick sweep of the hand, changed to other group sizes: a three group changed to a five group or vice versa, a six group broken up into groups of three or two, and so on. A few days later two groups were exposed for a flash glance to be compared: Which was larger? How much?

Gradually the radius of groups was increased, the contrast between background and objects was decreased, checkers were substituted for blocks and spools, then pennies. Next, pictures of groups—no depth perception—could be seen as groups, not as ones. Finally, dimes, pennies, buttons, and so on, could be seen against the brown desk top.

At the end of six weeks Leah was seeing groups to ten, patterned into twos and threes. Few persons of any age can "see" more than three ones or three groups of twos and threes as a group. Groups of four and more have to be broken apart into groups of twos and threes to be seen at a single focus.

The time for practice in making the transition from seeing groups to thinking groups had arrived. "Find all the different ways you can group 7," the tutor would say, then "say them with figures."

- 7 are 3 and 4.
- 7 are two 3's and 1.
- 7 are 5 and 2.
- 7 are 6 and 1.
- 7 are 1 more than three 2's.
- 7 are 2 more than 5.
- 7 are 1 more than 6.
- 7 are 3 less than two 5's.

In the beginning the tutor avoided the regulation ways of writing combinations so as to avoid carry-overs of the old counting reactions to the stimuli of $3+4=7$, and so on.

There was practice in rethinking, without objects, one combination of groups

into another: 5 and 2 could be changed to 3 and 4 or to 1 more than 3 and 3. Prior to this they had worked with groups of 10's—two 30's, 60; 60 and 10 more, 70; 20 more than 50, 70; and so on. So the teacher began asking: 30 and 40? Without objects Leah would help herself "find out" by thinking them over into groups she knew automatically, as, "That's six 10's and another 10, 70; 30 and 40 are 70."

Groups to 10 must be known in all relations but groups larger than 10 may be thought adequately if regrouped into *tens* and *ones*. Thus Leah learned, first by grouping with objects, then by thinking without objects, to find out 6 and 8 by putting two from the six group with the eight group to make it 10. Thereupon she could instantly think: 4 and 10, 14 (14 says 4 and 10). 6 and 7, 3 more than 5 and 5, 9 and 4, 10 and 3, and so on.

At the same time she was learning to take apart tens and ones into other groups. 7 from 16? Take the 6; then you'd need 1 more out of the 10. That would leave 9. Or, picking up the dime, she'd say, "7 out of this would leave 3; then this 6 would leave 9." There was no stereotyped way of "saying" and "thinking." She was encouraged to experiment and discover which way was the most economical for her.

She took quantities apart into equal groups too. How many 4's in 16? Think 2 from the 10, over with the 6, and there'd be two 8's, two 4's in each; 16 are four 4's. Then a fourth of 16 is 4; a half of 16 is 8; a fourth is a half of an eighth. By the end of the ninth week Leah was doing such explorative "seeing" and "thinking" on her own. The tutor encouraged her, though at this time she did not give direct instructions for anything beyond the "harder addition and subtraction combinations"—in both tens and ones—as 7 and 8, 5 and 10, 15; 70 and 80, seven 10's and eight 10's, five 10's and ten 10's, 150.

The ninth week the harder addition and subtraction combinations began just "pop-

ping into my mind," Leah said. "I didn't have to think that at all. It was just there." Two weeks more and Leah wrote, in three minutes and without one error, the answers to all the addition and subtraction combinations which she had been unable to master in six years of the best drill-by-repetition methods. She was making no mistakes in problems.

Six weeks of experimental manipulation of groups between 20 and 50, first with objects, then thinking without objects, followed. The tutor guided this experimentation with larger groups so as to emphasize thinking relations between quantities, using what was known to find out the unknown. For example:

ten 4's, 40; change to eight 5's; 40 are eight 5's.

ten 3's, 30; change to five 6's; 30 is five 6's.

seven 6's, same as five 6's and two 6's; 30 and 12, 42. Seven 6's are 42.

eight 6's, same as five 6's and three 6's; 30 and 18, 48; or

four 6's and four 6's, 24 and 24, 48.

Eight 6's are 48.

Leah didn't need pencil and paper to put 30 and 18 together—she could think 48 immediately because she had mastered thinking 10's—three 10's and one 10 and 8, 48.

Leah co-operated by stopping counting 2, 12, 18, 24, 30, 36 to find six 6's. She didn't remember "36" for nearly six weeks, but one day she exclaimed, "I didn't have to think it. It just came out." She thought six 9's as six less than six 10's or as six 5's and six 4's for nearly six weeks; then suddenly she didn't have to think. She just "knew it." In slightly less than six months from the time Leah started to relearn arithmetic, she was solving difficult multiplication and division problems without mistakes. She was no longer counting. She *knew* answers for *keeps*.

Leah could do more—many problems that other children had to write down to

solve Leah could "do in her head." 48 and 75, 75 and 25 and 23, 123. She had the answer within five seconds. Forty-eight 60's, fifty 60's, 3,000; two 60's, 120 less than 3,000, 2,880? She would check by thinking it another way: forty 60's, 2,400; eight 60's, 480; forty-eight 60's, 2,400 and 480, 2,880.

Leah is in the eighth grade now. *B* has been her lowest grade in arithmetic. Most of her grades have been *A*'s. Leah no longer makes those mistakes of one too many or one too few—she no longer has to count. Leah has mastered her basic combinations—and more.

Leah is only one of thousands of children with average or higher I.Q.'s who are failing in arithmetic because they have never learned to think *groups*. A few of these have not learned because they have had inadequate opportunities to see groups—so much of the preschool number-book experience is in counting *lines* of cats and dogs and so on. Lines of objects are difficult to see as groups. Counting teaches a child to focus on one object, then the next. It is remarkable that any of our children do learn to give attention to groups as wholes in the light of the preponderance of counting ones in their preschool—and often in their school—experience.

Most of the children, however, do learn to focus on groups as wholes in their play experience. The ones who don't are likely to be children who have impairment in visual perception. Such impairment is caused by blocks in the brain paths which interfere with the orderly manner whereby the hundreds of bits into which each picture the eye takes is broken up are transmitted to the "TV screen" of the brain. Result—distorted and/or blurred image.

Instead of penalizing and scolding these children for never "finishing" their work and for making "careless" mistakes, we should be seeking to understand the nature of their difficulties and to learn methods of bypassing the roadblocks in the brain which are causing the faulty perception. Leah's progress is representative of the progress of the very few who have had tutors who are trying to understand the difficulties in learning which these children have. May the day be soon when the very few will become the many. Perhaps in time, class methods may be devised. At present, however, the job is one for the tutor who sits across the table from the handicapped child, studying every response made, experimenting, checking, rejecting this procedure, accepting that one.



Music in General Education

The basic organization of school music activities contributes to the development of social competency and democratic values. Here an individual merges himself with a larger whole without loss of identification. He learns to respect the abilities and contributions of others as he strives for self-improvement. The creation of a unified effort reflects the best of each individual member.

Those who use the social studies approach to music certainly are to be commended but not if they negate the principles of music growth and development. This qualification, however, does not justify exclusion of the social studies approach as a basic framework for music experiences. . . . Musical expressions rise from social institutions and human emotions. With the vast material available from

national, cultural and ethnic groups, plus the resources of 1956, a carefully planned program can enrich and support the involvement of (1) appreciation of our democratic heritage; (2) moral and spiritual values; (3) understanding of people through the world; (4) respect for human values and belief in others.

In addition to the human qualities already suggested, a survey of folk and composed music literature will disclose music reflecting occupations, customs, environment, transportation, recreation, affinity to a supreme Deity and cherished thoughts of freedom. Names, dates, events and places take on new and more personal meaning when vitalized by music experiences.—DAVID L. WILMOT in the *Florida School Bulletin*.

Are Fat Children Problem Children?

By ROBERT G. ANDREE

THERE IS A TREMENDOUS AMOUNT of research being conducted these days on obesity, but little of it pertains to children. I suppose we tend to associate fatness with jollity and to gloss over what problems a fat adolescent may have. A child can actually be disfigured by his obesity and still have old wives' tales account it as a sign of robust health or as a condition that he will outgrow if given time. I have observed, however, that an increased number of children are asking their school nurses and doctors for advice on how to lose weight. How to be attractive and how to be strong are still the foremost problems confronting girls and boys.

With this in mind a study was encouraged in 1954, part of which was conducted at Brookline High School. Its results are so far reaching that they ought to be shared with every schoolman.¹

The way a normal child grows is relatively well known. Two great growth cycles take him to maturity, the second one being of the greatest importance to secondary schoolmen, for it takes place during much of the second decade of the child's life. Boys tend to add more weight relatively than height and tend to get stocky. Girls tend to increase subcutaneous fat, and consistently have more than boys at all ages. Of course, it is difficult for school personnel to know when a child is just stocky and when he is fat. One way to measure this successfully is through the use of the Wetzel grid,² an easily maintained chart

that is finding increasing usage among schools concerned with this problem. Even if this technique is used for only those greatly deviating from the norm, the cost in time and effort is worth while. Some studies show that at least 10 per cent of a given pupil population are fat, but the author of the Wetzel grid is content to list about 7 per cent of the girls and 2 per cent of the boys as being so. Nevertheless, sufficient social and emotional problems can arise within this group to warrant close attention. Johnson found 12.5 per cent of the girls and 9 per cent of the boys in a sample of 6,346 school children as being too fat. That ought to be sufficient to start any schoolman working on the problem.

It's natural for a schoolman to look everywhere but to his own curricular and extracurricular program for reasons underlying obesity in children. He'll look to the family, where there will be a significant association between fat mothers and fat daughters. Or he'll find reasons in economic levels. Or he'll observe that the children are the oldest or youngest in a family group. There may be evidence in some schools that fat children eat more. Actually, when children are acutely aware (and ashamed) of their condition, the caloric intake is less than for a child of normal

EDITOR'S NOTE

Here is a short article that presents a new point of view regarding some of the pupils now enrolled in secondary schools. If you object to the word "fat," substitute "obese." The author, formerly headmaster of the Brookline (Massachusetts) High School, is now superintendent of the Rich Township High School in Park Forest, Illinois.

¹ Mary Louise Johnson, "Factors Associated with the Development of Obesity in Children." Unpublished doctoral thesis, Harvard School of Public Health, 1954.

² Norman Wetzel, "Assessing the Physical Condition of Children," *Journal of Pediatrics*, 22: 82-110 (January 1943); 208-225 (February 1943); 329-361 (March 1943).

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weight. They stay away from fattening foods and often skip a meal or two, usually breakfast.

Most of the group studied at Brookline spent too much time in sleeping and sitting activities and were not attracted to activities that could have increased their alertness and participation in games and sports. They tended to be clumsy and (apart from some special work in physical education) no individual program of school activity had been devised to meet their needs.

Only one case needs to be called to mind. Judy could account for some activity in each of the hours per week. She spent 65 hours sleeping, 88 hours in sitting activities, and only 18 hours in activities calculated to give her a chance to reduce fat. Classtime took 19 hours, television 18½, Homework took 7, and movies 3. She spent 2¼ hours reading; meals and riding a car 7½ each. The telephone took 13!! Painting and club activities occupied another 9 hours. Gym activities, dancing, and bicycling, plus some moderate walking, took less than 6 hours a week. I am sure

the activity program worked out in conjunction with the home did much for Judy.

Once a weight-reduction and planned activity program was worked out with the help of the students, we began to see some startling results: Five seniors lost weight (6 to 15 pounds) and one was referred to her personal physician for a thyroid condition. Two juniors lost heavily (one, 50 pounds in two years, and one 12 pounds in three weeks!). Ten other juniors lost from 2½ to 18½ pounds in the experimental period. Three obese sophomores lost 2 to 18 pounds. A subsequent study showed that the girls took a new lease on scholarship and that a high percentage increased their marks.

Are fat children problem children? Of course they are! They need help and encouragement in their daily planned program of activity, in their emotional life, and in the encouragement to produce more in curricular and extracurricular activities. Careful study of their daily regimen by qualified personnel may help to make them better persons and better students.



A Look Ahead

There will be three major trends in the work of education associations during the next ten years.

There will be a marked emphasis on the professional standards movement. There are five areas in which professional standards are needed: professional ethics; professional education; professional service; professional community relations; and professional welfare. Teaching must become a real and recognized profession, just as theology, medicine, and law are now recognized. None of these could be so recognized without the foundations laid by teaching. The task of developing the mental processes and the spiritual values upon which the nation's future rests, surely deserves recognition as an absolute essential in modern life. Bold action in a unified effort of all educational organizations to reach and maintain high standards in all of these

areas is imperative if teaching is to be recognized as a real profession.

There will be a growth of 50 per cent in membership on local, state, national, and world levels. This marked increase in membership will be accompanied by a rapidly increasing trend toward unity and coordination of effort on all levels of education associations.

National associations of teachers throughout the world will more rapidly unify their efforts and direct their energies toward the development of a new order of international friendship, justice, and good-will which will help each nation to enlarge and broaden its national concepts and to promote the idea of the Golden Rule among the nations of the earth, strengthening the efforts now being made to make peace possible in this Hydrogen Bomb Era.—WILLARD E. GIVENS in the *Phi Delta Kappan*.

Ten Tips for the COMPOSITION TEACHER

By
ROBERT A. RORIPAUGH

ALTHOUGH THE PROBLEM of teaching English has long been debated on all educational levels, the solutions offered have been as varied as the diagnoses. Everyone who deals with the language arts can probably tell the difficulties involved in present-day English instruction—as he or she sees them. The blame is placed on the elementary school, the secondary school, the college or university, teaching methods, teacher training, home environment, student bodies of varied capabilities, and overemphasis of technological instruction in the Atomic Age. And not only is there a plethora of doctors, but also each pulse-taker has a prescription.

Interesting as the debate may be, however, there are a number of teachers on all levels who are not interested in experimenting with new teaching methods, in changing teacher-training programs, or in the pros and cons of emphasizing English

literature or American literature. Their problem is simply one of attempting to increase the effectiveness of their pupils' written communication; their problem is how to teach composition.

The teacher, particularly in the secondary school, is therefore faced with finding ways to develop an ability in composition in pupils who are often poorly prepared, dislike writing, and exist in such numbers that the marking of compositions appears to be a Homeric feat. Yet with imagination and some tools to work with, writing can be taught in an interesting and effective manner. Perhaps some of these "tricks of the trade" will be helpful or suggest other devices to be utilized in that unit of composition you must teach next semester.

1. *Begin composition exercises while pupils are young.* Like the muscles of the body, the mental processes involved in writing must be exercised if they are to attain full development. For this reason, the elementary school is the place to begin the teaching of composition, while the junior-high years are the time for beginning regular short compositions. However, as in the other areas of the language arts, deficiencies in composition may be corrected to a considerable extent by effective teaching in the high school, if they are caught early enough.

2. *Utilize daily composition exercises.* Ability in composition is developed through writing. The mind must be conditioned to generate thinking into written expression. Many career writers set aside a specific portion of the day for writing and in this way have developed their writing into a habit. Similarly, a pupil who

EDITOR'S NOTE

It is generally conceded that writing an interesting theme is difficult. Teachers of English have long complained about the amount of time taken in correcting students' compositions. The ten points in this article will not settle the composition problems, but they are practical suggestions and are succinctly stated. The author is teaching assistant in English at the University of New Mexico. Both he and The Clearing House are indebted to Edna L. Furness, professor of English education at the University of Wyoming, for reading and appraising this paper, which was prepared in her course on "Methods of Teaching English."

knows he is going to be required to write a short composition every day will soon find he can express himself on paper with much greater facility. One paragraph is quite adequate for these daily exercises, although the length written by the pupil will probably be shorter at first and longer after considerable practice. The short composition teaches the pupil to concentrate on using complete sentences to form a well-developed paragraph and tends to correct such faults as padding, lack of direction, poor organization, and carelessness. Occasional longer compositions should be utilized during the later high-school years, but the daily composition should be short. This is also an aid to the teacher in an overcrowded school system, for he can quickly and effectively grade a large number of short pieces of writing. In grading, he should stress a few specific points rather than be hypercritical, which often confuses or discourages the young writer.

3. *Use carefully selected readings to generate enthusiasm and interest in writing.* Youngsters need to see or hear examples of good writing. Choose especially effective passages which will catch their interest. Usually the later American writers are good choices for this type of priming. Some passages from Hemingway, Faulkner, and Fitzgerald, for example, are very descriptive and also serve to generate class discussion of why they are effective. The short story is very good for this type of analysis.

4. *Use the student's own work as a teaching aid.* If handled properly by the teacher, an analysis by the pupils of their own writing is an invaluable aid to teaching composition. Such discussion develops their critical perception and lets the whole class benefit from the errors and flashes of genius of others. In addition, it tends to develop a competitive desire to write well (and perhaps originally) and receive recognition. However, the teacher must be careful to prevent ridicule or embarrassment and he must praise along with pointing out

errors. If he is not skillful at this, a better plan is to use compositions from another class for this purpose.

5. *Teach outlining for longer compositions.* The outline provides direction and organization for the young writer. He is able to write much more easily, confidently, and effectively if he knows what he is going to write about before he begins. The outline gives him a feeling of security (as it does in public speaking) and helps to correct such errors as lack of direction, padding, poor organization, lack of orderly movement, and lack of coherence.

6. *Teach the summary.* The summary combines exercise in reading, evaluation, and note taking with practice in objective composition. Also, summaries show the pupil how topic sentences are built into paragraphs, teach reading comprehension, and develop the pupil's ability to analyze writing.

7. *Give opportunities for experimental writing.* Many pupils have real talent in creative writing but do not receive the opportunity and encouragement to develop their ability. The assignment of sketches, short stories, poems, humorous incidents, and personal experiences as writing topics often produces surprisingly good results. Some of the ability shown through this type of assignment might not have been evident before.

8. *Approach the informal composition creatively.* Composition cannot be taught through a series of rules. Unlike the analytical process of learning grammar, composition is a complex psychological process which involves mood of the writer, environment, emotional factors, and the ability to create words from thought. Therefore—along with correctness in mechanics and organization—stress originality, insight, effectiveness, and use of sharp details.

9. *Teach letter writing.* Many pupils with a flair for science or business cannot see the need for writing ordinary compo-

sitions. However, these same youngsters will show interest in learning to write a letter of application or a business letter. The letter teaches organization, neatness, economy of expression, correctness of grammar, spelling, and punctuation, and stresses creating a good impression through the written word. Like the daily composition, letters may be quickly graded.

10. *Let the pupils grade a theme.* To develop ability in finding errors in writing, give the class a mimeographed theme to mark and grade. If the theme is selected carefully, the pupils will show considerable interest and diligence in wielding the red pencil. The exercise will also give the class an insight into how their own writing is marked and graded.



Assignment of Student Teachers

By L. R. DAVIS and L. A. BROOKS

(University, Alabama)

The majority of colleges engaged in teacher training programs today do not have on-campus laboratory schools. Rising costs have made laboratory schools almost prohibitive for the average teacher-training institution to maintain. Instead, colleges are turning more and more to public school systems in developing student teaching facilities.

It is probably no exaggeration to say that at the very hub of the present teacher internship program in America is the public school teacher who is serving as critic and guide to one or more student teachers. Whether the internship will be a rich and rewarding experience for the student teacher will depend primarily upon the critic teacher and her ability to win the student's confidence and esteem.

No single step in teacher training is more important than the decision to assign a particular student teacher to a particular critic teacher. The success or failure of a professional career may hang in the balance. There are numerous factors which should be considered in making student teaching assignments:

(1) The age and maturity level of boys and girls with whom the student teacher would like to work. Would he feel more satisfied with eleventh or twelfth graders, or would he prefer the idealism and irresponsibility of seventh graders?

(2) The particular subject the student teacher would prefer to teach. Is the general science student confident that he can handle a chemistry

class when the bulk of his work has been done in biological sciences?

(3) The kind of teacher with whom the student teacher thinks he can best work. Would he like a man or a woman as his critic teacher, a scholarly academician or an extroverted functionalist? The student teacher should have the right to express his wishes in advance and have them considered carefully.

(4) The student teacher's out-of-school responsibilities. Some student teachers have their own automobiles, while others find it most difficult to arrange transportation to schools located at a distance from the campus. Some students carry moderate loads while others are carrying eighteen hours in a valiant attempt to graduate. Some students are financially carefree, while others must work part time to survive. To the extent that the director of student teaching can discover and consider problems of this type can the stage be set for the student teacher to establish, or at least be able to establish, a good relationship with his critic teacher.

(5) Making assignments tentative. In spite of unusual caution and care, an assignment may bring together two incompatible personalities. If it is understood that all assignments are tentative and subject to change for the first three weeks or so, it may be possible for adjustments to be made without anyone's losing face. This may constitute rather important protection for both the student teachers and the critic teachers.

A Substitute Teacher as a Camera

By TRAVIS L. HOUSER

MISS ANDRESEN got off the city bus in front of the brick school, Central Junior High School. The glazed bricks shone dully under the autumn sun, and she hesitated before she entered the old three-storied building. Well, there were other schools in the system, and if Central didn't please her, she would ask the substitute teacher clerk for another assignment. In the corridor a sign said OFFICE, and she opened the door.

"Good morning, Miss Andresen?"

"Yes."

"Come in, please. We've been expecting you. I'm Kay Kimmons, the school secretary. I have a key for you and some material that will help you."

"Oh, thank you." Miss Andresen watched the secretary take a key from a row of key-filled hooks and grope for mimeographed papers under the counter. A gray-haired woman in a suit came into the office from a small adjoining room. She smiled in Miss Andresen's direction, and the secretary introduced them.

"Miss Andresen, this is our vice-principal, Mrs. McNeeley."

"How do you do. I'm the substitute teacher for Mr. Hos. . . . I didn't quite get his name over the phone."

"Mr. Hostetter," the vice-principal filled

in. "Here, I'll take the key and those papers and show you to your room."

"Thank you."

After leaving her hat and coat in the women teachers' room, Miss Andresen followed Mrs. McNeeley to a second-floor classroom. The vice-principal put the mimeographed papers on the desk; the papers explained class organization, the bell system, fire-drill procedure, and there was a list of the teachers' and administrators' names with their room numbers.

"And here are the seating charts for your classes." Mrs. McNeeley took the charts from the middle drawer of the desk.

"Gosh, I shouldn't have any trouble at all."

"I'm sure you won't. Mr. Hostetter knew he was going to be absent so he left this list of assignments. Of course, you don't have to follow them rigidly, but they'll serve as a guide."

"I'm certainly relieved!"

"Why is that?"

"Well, this is my very first teaching assignment, and I didn't know where to begin. Naturally, I've done practice teaching, but I always had carefully prepared lesson plans, and the regular teacher was always close by in case of trouble."

"Did you just get your certificate at the university?"

"Yes. I have a certificate in librarianship, too, but I think I probably like teaching better. At least, practice teaching was lots of fun. And cataloguing in a library can be real drab."

"I'm prejudiced," the vice-principal replied, "but I think teaching is much more rewarding than library work. You be sure to call me if you need any help. That telephone in the corner over there is to the office switchboard."

EDITOR'S NOTE

Efforts by school systems to acquaint substitute teachers fully with their job are likely to be as good as the principal and staff of an individual school care to make them. A case in point is the double-headed experience presented by the author, who is now associated with the Seattle public schools, having previously taught in eighteen city schools from the fourth to the twelfth grade.

"Thanks, but I don't think I'll have one bit of trouble."

And she didn't. During the last period, while watching a class of hard-working ninth graders, she thought contentedly about her day. Even geography with the seventh graders had been fun. They had studied about Bergen, Norway, and that was a city she knew first hand! And reading Burns's "To a Mouse" with the eighth graders was just her dish! Those kids had some original interpretations. At lunch the other teachers already knew her name because the principal included it in the morning bulletin. That was considerate of him. All in all, it had been a perfect day.

The last bell rang and it was half sorrowfully that she dismissed her class, gathered her papers, and returned to the office.

"Hello. How did you make out?"

"Just fine, Mrs. McNeeley. Those pupils are good workers. I even got some papers graded during class."

"Mr. Hostetter is a strong teacher."

"I know that! In three of the ninth-grade classes a student chairman ran the entire panel discussion they were having. And all the classes had attendance monitors."

"Wonderful! We need teachers in this region and I guess we've stolen a recruit from the libraries."

"You sure have. I knew teaching was for me. Thanks again and good-by. Oh wait, I'd better call the substitute clerk."

"We'll do that for you."

"That's nice of you. Thank you. Well, I must run to catch that ride you arranged for me with Miss Avery."

"Good-by. And thank you."

On Tuesday, Miss Andresen rushed right into Jackson Junior High School as if she were afraid to lose a second. After all, it was another junior high and that was her level. She was sure of that after her day at Central.

She hurried into the office. Where was the school clerk? Children scurried in and out, and teachers milled around the bulletin

board. Who was the clerk? Maybe that was she by the desk.

"Excuse me, I'm the substitute for Miss Swartz."

"You want the clerk—she's over there."

"Thank you." Miss Andresen walked to a middle-aged woman who was sternly reading a typewritten paper. No wonder she had trouble finding the clerk! She looked more like a principal than a secretary.

"Excuse me. I'm Miss Andresen."

"Who?"

"The substitute for Miss Swartz."

"I didn't know she was absent."

"Well, I think the substitute clerk said it was Miss Swartz. That is, it sounded like Miss Swartz on the telephone."

"It probably was. Her room is 307. The teacher across the hall will open the door for you."

"Thanks." She was glad to get out of the office. Now where was the teachers' room? Really, it didn't make much difference if she wore her hat and coat to the classroom, but adolescents make such a stir about things like that. Maybe that tall blond boy could help her.

"Could you tell me where the teachers' room is, please?"

"Men's or women's?"

"Women's, of course."

"That way." The adolescent shrugged his head and shoulders in the direction to go.

"Thanks." She heard a snicker as she walked away. When she reached the end of the long corridor, there wasn't any teachers' room and the warning bell was ringing. She made a turn, but had to retrace her steps. That youngster had misdirected her! By the time she found the room, the last bell was ringing.

Her classroom door was already opened and a blast of noise hit her ears. She hesitated and then plunged in. This was a time for a firm hand. If she singled out a student, the others would come to order.

"You by the window, sit down in your seat! Do you hear me? You by the window!"

The boy was ignoring her! Miss Andresen walked resolutely to the boy and faced him squarely. "What's your name?"

"Me? Ray Sterns."

"Well, sit down, Ray."

"Sure."

He took his seat and the others did quiet down. Now if she could find the seating chart. It wasn't in the middle drawer. A frantic search through the drawers proved her fears. There wasn't any seating chart! There wasn't even a grade book. How could she keep thirty teen-agers under control without knowing their names?

During a tense lull in the last period, Miss Andresen took stock of the day. It had been miserable! She had been dismally deceived that the first-period confusion would be quelled by working over a single student. She was able to memorize several names in the first few minutes of the class and was gaining control of the situation. And then they began to shift seats secretly, and she thought her memory was playing tricks on her.

She even had to take that sassy boy in the green sweater to the office to learn for sure what his name was. Oh, he gave his right name just outside the office door, but by that time he had told her so many names she didn't know what to believe. That office clerk sure gave her a funny look. And the vice-principal must have thought she didn't know beans about teaching. Well, maybe she didn't.

Fourth period had been a nightmare! When she finally had the students in a man-

ageable condition, the bell rang five times in quick succession. One girl said it was a fire drill and they were supposed to march outside. However, she was suspicious of everybody by that time, and she looked across the hall to see if the other classes were going out. They weren't, so she believed the boy who said it was an earthquake drill and they were supposed to crawl under their desks. How was she supposed to know that it really was a fire drill and occupants of the third floor were required to remain in their rooms until the first and second floors cleared? If she only had a bulletin on emergency procedure!

It had been a soul-trying day, but it was almost over. As those eighth graders filed in the door for the last class, she braced herself when she overheard an incautious whisper, "Substitute." They had argued for ten minutes over the proper assignment. In anger she had swept aside their arguments and assigned the first lesson she opened to in the book. She really couldn't blame them for grumbling about doing an assignment that probably wasn't even close to what they were supposed to do. But, then, who could blame her?

After school Miss Andresen battled her way to the office phone. She didn't call the substitute teacher clerk—she dialed the university placement office.

"Hello, may I speak to Miss Bakken, please? . . . Hello, Miss Bakken? . . . This is Kristine Andresen. Do you still have that cataloguing job open in the university library?"



The Art of Listening. From the outset, it can be indicated that whether it be teaching or counseling an important requirement of each is to develop the art of listening on a mature level. It must be admitted, for reasons too numerous and comprehensive to discuss here, that the teaching profession has at times been somewhat deficient in emphasizing the listening aspect of the teacher-learner relationship. Nevertheless, this phenomenon is definitely a requirement for wholesome teaching experiences, and it is hoped that research and critical discussion will continue to refine the *listening problem*.—ARTHUR LERNER in the *Peabody Journal of Education*.

Editorial

Revival of Interest in Foreign Languages

¶Educators and laymen alike are exhibiting a revived and vigorous concern about foreign language instruction. This is particularly true of elementary schools, where, according to a recent report of the Modern Language Association, more than 300,000 pupils study some foreign language. Why did the position of language instruction in the secondary school decline in recent decades and why is a revival of interest in foreign languages now occurring?

¶My personal judgment is that two factors are primarily responsible. First, teachers of these subjects failed to keep abreast of developments in the theory and practice of education in the United States. Old and outmoded methods of teaching, involving rote memorization and mechanical, and often meaningless, translation of uninspired literature, left the student cold. While languages enjoyed a monopoly of captive classes, instructors made little effort to enliven and functionalize language instruction, or to integrate it with other subjects in the social sciences and the humanities with which it had a natural affinity. When the rapid growth of new subject matter occurred after 1900, however, and required the adoption of the elective system, young people in our secondary schools found other subjects more closely related to their interests.

¶Fortunately, in recent years, especially since World War II, language teaching has been revitalized. The spoken word is used by teacher and pupils almost from the beginning, materials of instruction are related directly to the everyday lives of students, and integration with other related subject matter is attempted. Experience in the elementary schools, as well as in the later years of education, already has demonstrated that under proper teaching conditions students of all ages find the learning of a language other than their own highly exciting.

¶The second reason for the decline of foreign languages in recent decades and for their present rising popularity is the value which young people and their parents place on these subjects in relation to alternative subjects. While a few years ago parents saw little need for foreign languages, they now almost universally want their children to study modern tongues, because they believe that the ability to use other languages will prepare young people for cultural, social, and vocational advancement.

¶There is no doubt that the demands for foreign languages in the secondary schools will multiply rapidly in the years ahead. If this movement is to be successful, however, caution must be observed. The teacher is the essential unit in any educational program. There is at present a great, and growing, shortage of all types of teachers in the United States. It would be a disservice to the profession as a whole, to children and their parents, and to American society to place ill-prepared and incompetent teachers of languages in secondary-school classrooms. A vast program of in-service education, as well as a broadened course of study in the teacher-preparing institutions, will be required before many schools can offer instruction even in the commonly taught foreign languages.

EARL JAMES McGRATH

Organizing Guidance Services— SPECIALISTS SPEAK

By
GEORGE L. KEPPERS

IN ACCORDANCE WITH the trend in school organization today, it seems fashionable to have a guidance program. On many occasions this consists of nothing more than designating a good teacher as a counselor, either part time or full time—generally the former. This is not a specific weakness in administration but rather is due to several factors, such as the unavailability of personnel, the fact that colleges are not training sufficient personnel in guidance, and the fact that most guidance courses are offered at the graduate level. Many times a similar amount of consideration is given to the place of guidance in the total school program as well as to the specific question of whom it will serve, and how. While organization per se is no guarantee of the success of any project, organization and adequate planning are necessary for worthwhile undertakings. The following discussion of some hows, whats, whys, and wherefores of a guidance program is based on the opinions of 308 guidance specialists (counselor trainers, state supervisors of guidance services, and directors of guidance programs) from forty-five states.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Is there a need for a formal guidance program if the curriculum is oriented to the needs of youth? What is the role of the home-room teacher in the guidance program? Should guidance services be available to all, or to special groups within the school? These are some questions discussed in this article. The author is associate professor of education, University of New Mexico.

The first question one might ask is: Will there be a need for a formal guidance program if the curriculum (including extracurricular activities) is oriented to the needs of youth? There was considerable difference of opinion among the specialists. Twenty-eight per cent agreed that the need for a formal guidance program decreases, 30 per cent agreed with reservations, and 42 per cent disagreed. The following is a résumé of the comments made: To have every teacher a counselor would be an ideal situation, but this seems to be impractical at the present time because of the lack of training facilities, because there aren't sufficient courses being offered at the undergraduate level, and because most undergraduate degrees are in subject matter areas. A frequent comment was that if we increase the area of light (broader course of study), we also increase the circumference of darkness (areas the pupil doesn't know about). When the curriculum included only sixteen subjects and two or three extracurricular activities, there wasn't the confusion students face today in planning four years of high-school work. As the curriculum becomes more oriented to the needs of the pupil, we need to know more about the needs and abilities of the pupil and then assist him in making intelligent choices. This requires time and assistance from personnel trained in counseling—not the mere giving of advice—and thus creates a greater demand for specialists in counseling. Problem cases may decrease in an oriented curriculum, but the group activities increase the demand for counseling of a more personal or emotional nature, in contrast to

strictly vocational or educational counseling. Guidance is continuous and involves both the past, present, and future, whereas the curriculum is only the present environment and in some instances may hinder the growth and development of boys and girls. From these comments one might conclude that guidance and the curriculum should strengthen each other. Whatever can be accomplished through the curriculum in groups to meet the needs of boys and girls will eliminate or reduce the group work required of counselors, thus freeing them for counseling on personal and emotional problems.

If the decision has been made to have a guidance program in the school, what is the status of the counselor? Ninety-one per cent of the specialists agreed (none disagreed) that for the successful functioning of the program it was essential to have qualified personnel co-operating with the teachers and the community. The fact that good teachers have always done counseling does not mean that all teachers have done good counseling or that we always have good counseling. The results of the survey seem to indicate a need for professional leadership and know-how; good bedside manner is not enough. To expect 100 per cent co-operation is being rather idealistic; there will always be those who will not be converted. There is a need for co-operation and mutual respect on a professional level. Just as we accept the role of the classroom teacher or coach, so should the role of the counselor be accepted and recognized.

Assuming now that there will be trained counselors, how many should there be? Fifty-three per cent of the specialists agreed and 38 per cent agreed with reservations that the assigned time for counselors should be at the rate of approximately one hour a day for 50 pupils, or one full-time counselor for every 300 pupils (based on a six-period day). Those who made exceptions to this ratio did so for the following reasons: (1) if there is wholehearted faculty co-

operation, the ratio could be one counselor per 500 pupils; (2) the ratio depends on the needs of pupils and the pupils' willingness to accept counseling; (3) as the program grows in depth and breadth, the ratio may very well change; and (4) the ratio depends on administrative provisions and understanding of need, which is perhaps the most significant factor of all. While there was general agreement that a ratio of approximately one counselor per 300 pupils was desirable, it does seem reasonable not to set rigid quotas but rather make them flexible depending on the administration, the pupils' needs and the extent of their problems, co-operation of the faculty, and development of the program. In the final analysis the local situation will be the deciding criterion.

The question of full-time or part-time counselors is an ever present one. The specialists voiced considerable disagreement on this question. Thirty per cent agreed, 37 per cent agreed with reservations, and 33 per cent disagreed that the counselors should be freed of all classroom activities. One of the most generally agreed upon arrangements was that the counselor should teach one class which would be closely related to guidance, such as occupations, pupil adjustment, orientation, group therapy. The reasons for this arrangement seem to be that it keeps the counselor in touch with the classroom, helps the counselor better understand the problems of youth, and improves staff relations, at least in a beginning program (too many times teachers feel full-time counselors don't appreciate the problems of the teacher). If the counselors are to be relieved of all classroom activities, they should have had several years of successful teaching experience and should avail themselves of the opportunity to observe boys and girls in a group situation. The dual role of teacher and counselor results in a division of time as well as responsibility and the counseling is very apt to be given a secondary position, resulting in superficial

counseling—that is, merely the giving of advice and information. Intensive counseling on a deeper level requires more time and energy than most teacher-counselors would be able to give. In general, if counselors are to teach, the teaching load should be limited to one class and should be closely related to problems of youth. This should be done not to keep peace among the staff or to provide an opportunity for the counselor to keep in touch with the problems of youth but rather because counseling will grow out of group discussion of common problems and such an arrangement is more directly related to the counselor's work.

Where to begin? Should the guidance services be limited? Should those services be selected which will show immediate results? Should the services be limited to special groups? Only 1 per cent of the guidance specialists disagreed and 91 per cent agreed with the idea that in a beginning program it would be better to select a few guidance services and activities and effectively utilize them rather than provide a comprehensive but superficial program. One point which received considerable emphasis was that plans should be made for a comprehensive program to be carried out as soon as staff, facilities, and so on, will permit. But start with the needs of the students and those services which the staff is capable of providing. An in-service training program may be the most important beginning, since trained personnel plus the co-operation of the staff is necessary for a really successful guidance program. A word of warning might be helpful: a limited program may be misleading to teachers, pupils, and parents. For example, they may very well perceive the program as a testing program or a placement bureau unless they can see the relationship between all the services and their importance in working with boys and girls. The program could remain a testing program or placement bureau; if it does, then let's call it that and not a guidance program.

While only 1 per cent disagreed with the idea of a limited program, 17 per cent disagreed and 36 per cent agreed with reservations to placing special emphasis on activities and services which will show definite and immediate results. A prevalent philosophy was that the program should be built on a strong foundation rather than that a big splash should be made for publicity purposes. Individual counseling, the most fundamental service in a guidance program, does not always move rapidly or meet with obvious success, but ultimately it will be the deciding factor as to whether the program is a success or not. This precludes the idea that all services are utilized to the fullest in working with boys and girls. Quick guidance, while it may satisfy the skeptics, will not stand the test of time like successfully counseled students. The latter are the best advertisement. It is a great temptation to put on a show, such as a career conference, but the most successful programs are those that sell themselves. Many times counselors are pressured by staff, administration, and personal feelings to show results. From the viewpoint of professional ethics it is what is being done to or for boys and girls that is significant rather than what will make the counselor "look good in the eyes of his colleagues." Therefore, select those activities which will best meet the needs of boys and girls and the program will sell itself.

Forty-three per cent of the specialists were of the opinion that the guidance program should not be made available only to special groups, such as seventh or ninth grade, and only 26 per cent agreed that it should be. A rather frequent comment was that a few services should be selected and made available to all. Children grow; they don't wait. If any services are to be limited, they should be in such areas as testing, placement, and group activities. For example, give the Differential Aptitude Tests to all eighth graders and tenth graders the first year, provide a course in educational

and vocational guidance for seniors, but provide counseling on a school-wide basis. Since counseling is the heart of the guidance program, it should be made available to all on the basis of self-referrals or teacher referrals.

Counseling and guidance need not be approached gingerly and sneak their way in. They have proved themselves and are accepted, though whether they are accepted by all is doubtful. There are still those who feel they are frills. Therefore it behooves the guidance personnel to develop the program gradually and sell it to parents, pupils, and staff. A primary factor is the philosophy of the administration and staff: Do they believe in lectures to pupils, in manipulating environment and pupil, and in self-realization and adjustment of the pupil? The latter is a philosophy more consistent with good counseling but does require more time and in most instances does not show immediate results or "quick guidance" as some would like to see. To summarize: Make a few selected services available to all; limit group activities to special groups but *counseling never*; let the program sell itself by a good job of counseling; and develop a sound philosophy of guidance on the part of the administration and staff.

What is the status of group guidance activities in the total program? Eighty-five per cent of the guidance specialists agreed and only 1 per cent disagreed that group guidance activities are an important supplement to other guidance services, especially counseling. This combination (group activities leading to counseling) should form the heart of the guidance program. The success of this part of the program depends very much on the person handling group activities. It should not be fifteen minutes a day in home rooms (there is neither time nor proper atmosphere). A trained counselor in charge of such groups is the most desirable arrangement. A second choice is to integrate guidance and regular classes in

a core course. Group guidance should never be "just an extra duty" or be allowed to replace counseling. While this is one way to reach all pupils, there is the danger that it may do so in a rather superficial manner, since many pupils will discuss deep-seated problems only in a private conference. Finally, it should be remembered that unless there is adequate planning of group work, unless qualified personnel lead the discussions, unless sufficient time is allotted, and unless group guidance leads to counseling, it might be better to omit group work from the program.

What records should be kept regarding pupils? Seventy-eight per cent agreed, 17 per cent agreed with reservations, and 5 per cent disagreed that a relatively small amount of carefully selected information about pupils effectively utilized is better than a comprehensive individual inventory used by a few staff members. A general comment was to the effect that two factors are more significant than the amount of information—namely, adequate interpretation of data and use of available information by all.

This would necessitate qualified personnel and a technique for making use of available information. If one may assume that qualified personnel have been selected, the problem resolves itself to one of making use of the information. The case conference is the best, but perhaps least used, technique for this purpose. It provides an opportunity for a meeting of minds, a sharing of information, and a chance to talk out a problem in a logical and inoffensive manner. Experience has shown that case conferences do result in some change, if not in the pupils, at least in the persons dealing with them. This is the result of better understanding, leading to acceptance of the pupils—a fundamental concept of guidance.*

* George L. Keppers, "Case Conferences Aid Teachers," *Educational News and Editorial Comment, School Review*, LXIII (May 1955), 258-59.

Conclusion

On the strength of the opinions of the guidance specialists who participated in this study, several succinct statements can be made regarding the organization of a guidance program:

(1) A well-rounded curriculum is not enough; organized guidance services to meet the needs of individual boys and girls are necessary. In fact, the broader the curriculum is, the greater is the need for guidance.

(2) For a successful program it is imperative that qualified personnel be employed and that there be a mutual respect for all personnel on a professional level.

(3) The number of personnel depends to a great extent on the demands of the pupils. This is a flexible part of the program and should vary with the development of the program, the philosophy of the school, and the amount of group guidance provided.

(4) If counselors are to teach, the courses should be closely related to guidance.

(5) Make plans for a comprehensive program and present them to the entire staff. Then begin with those services most needed as well as those the staff is capable of providing. Take the community, staff, and pupils along in the planning.

(6) Make counseling the mainstay of the program. Good counseling will do more than anything else to sell the program. Don't oversell the program, as it may boomerang. Starting with services that show immediate results, such as placement or follow-up, may arrest the development of other more needed services or label the program and should be done only if there is an immediate need for them.

(7) Select a few services and make them available to all. Some group activities may be limited to certain groups, but counseling never. Develop a sound philosophy of guidance among the staff.

(8) Group activities, well organized and carried out, should lead to counseling, which is the heart of the guidance program.

(9) The use of information and adequate interpretation thereof are more significant than the amount available. Qualified personnel making use of the case conference will prove very satisfying to all concerned.

While the foregoing suggestions have been made in terms of a beginning and an extended program, they should not be construed as being inflexible. Rather, they indicate patterns of organization. In many instances the problems of boys and girls cannot wait to be solved until the program is completely developed. Consequently services should be provided when needed.



Making More Different vs. Making More Alike. In my judgment the hallmark of a really good school is the fact that it regards individual differences as good things to be encouraged rather than obstacles to mass learning which should be stamped out. A way of looking at a school through this notion is to consider what the reading specialist does. If his job is to bring up the laggards to a level of acceptable mediocrity—straight remedial reading work—this is better than neglect, but it is *not* quality. The really good school helps those with difficulty, but it is equally concerned that the able read better. Another sign of encouraging differences is what the school does to discover and cultivate individual talents. The average or even better than average school concentrates on exposing everyone to a little art, a little music, a bit of history, and a snatch of mathematics. The really good school sees to it that pupils have wide exploratory experiences and that those of talent (and few do not have some special talents in some degree) can become more than moderately proficient in the use of their gifts.—DONALD ROSS in *Exchange*.

THE CASE FOR SARCASM— *A Minority Report*

By ONAS C. SCANDRETTE

MOST AUTHORITIES REGARD SARCASM as an undesirable method of classroom control. Some authorities go so far as to say that a teacher should never use sarcasm. I agree that, as a rule, sarcasm should be avoided. There are exceptions to most rules, however, and I believe that there are exceptions to this one. I recall several incidents when sarcasm was applied to me with beneficial results. The following is one example.

My English lit paper was overdue. After listening to a long list of excuses Mr. King, the teacher, slowly rose from his chair and, fixing me with a stern gaze, said, "Mr. Scandrette, I know your grandfather. A more honorable man never lived. I know your father. His word is as good as his bond. I know you, Mr. Scandrette. I know that you would not stoop to falsehood but," and here he banged his fist on the desk, "just the same I would like to see the evidence."

Nothing Mr. King could have said would have cut deeper. In my family, honesty was regarded as the highest of the virtues.

EDITOR'S NOTE

We have all heard of the statement that sarcasm should never be used in the classroom. Do you agree with that? Or do you take the point of view that sarcasm is potentially dangerous and should be used with the utmost caution but has some desirable outcomes if used judiciously? Read this account to find out whether you agree with the author. He is director of teacher education and extension at Wessington Springs College in South Dakota.

Yet I knew, and Mr. King knew, that my excuses hadn't been entirely honest. With the laughter of my classmates ringing in my ears, I wished the floor would open so that I might sink from view. As soon as school was over, I hurried home and finished my term paper.

But I wasn't off the hook yet. The next day, after taking roll call, Mr. King, who had spotted "the evidence" as soon as I entered the door, announced, "As we have eagerly awaited the appearance of Mr. Scandrette's term paper for lo these many days, I think it is fitting that he should read it for us at this time." No one else had to read his term paper.

You may rest assured that all subsequent assignments in Mr. King's classes were completed promptly and without equivocation. Sarcasm, in this instance, was highly beneficial.

I think an experienced teacher can safely use sarcasm if: (1) he knows the pupil well (Mr. King had known me for several years); (2) he knows the pupil likes him (Mr. King was my favorite teacher); (3) the pupil deserves the reprimand (I knew I hadn't been strictly honest); (4) the teacher makes it clear that he is rejecting the pupil's behavior rather than the pupil himself (I knew Mr. King still liked me); and (5) sarcasm is tempered with humor.

Sarcasm certainly should be used sparingly and with good judgment, as it is potentially dangerous. So is a surgeon's scalpel. Neither should be used by unskilled persons; neither should be used without careful diagnosis; and neither should be used if less dangerous methods will accomplish the desired result. Some-

times, however, there is nothing that will take the place of surgery. Likewise sarcasm, if skillfully used, is sometimes the best way to drive home a point. Allow me to submit the following evidence.

Our advanced news-writing class had spent several weeks studying the techniques of news writing.

"It's time we put our theory to use," our instructor announced at the beginning of the class period. "Today I am going to give you some facts, and you will write a story in class. You will have exactly twenty-five minutes to write. Ready? The First National Bank has been held up by two masked men who escaped in an automobile. This is the second time within a year that the First National Bank has been robbed. There were fifteen customers in the bank at the time of the robbery. State troopers have been given a description of the bandits and all roads are being watched. A car answering the description of the getaway car has been abandoned in North Hempstead. The gas tank was empty. Two submachine guns were found in the car. There was no trace of the loot. The proprietor of a North Hempstead café reported serving two strangers about 2:30 P.M. The men appeared nervous and in a hurry. One of the bank customers fainted during the holdup. It is felt that the bandits are probably the same ones who held up the Sheffield Bank six weeks ago. Are there any questions?"

Nobody asked any questions.

"Okay," said the instructor, glancing at his wrist watch, "you will have exactly twenty-five minutes. Remember, you want to make the afternoon edition and the deadline is twenty-five minutes away."

We wrote furiously for about five minutes. Then our instructor rose from his chair and, with obvious disgust, said, "Throw your stories into the wastebasket! They won't be worth reading. What kind of reporters are you? Even a cub reporter knows that the first law of journalism is 'get the facts.' You don't have enough facts to write a decent story. What time was the bank robbed? How much money was taken? What were the model, make, and license number of the getaway car? What direction did the robbers go? Who was the proprietor of what café at North Hempstead? What did the suspicious customers look like? These are just a few of the facts you should have gotten when I asked if there were any questions. Instead, you sat like bumps on a log and didn't ask a single question. And this is supposed to be an advanced news-writing class!" With that the instructor picked up his brief case and stalked from the room, not to return until the next class session.

No classroom lecture could have made the point so effectively. Several members of that class are now in journalistic work. I wager that no one who was in that class ever attempts to write a story without getting all available facts.

The defense rests.



It can be expected that, in the future, the personal and professional status of the teacher will be greatly enhanced. As school organization and administration become more democratic in practice as well as in theory, teachers will participate more actively in the determination of educational plans and policies and thus will find in teaching a more creative and rewarding experience. Increased public understanding and appreciation of the teachers' role will insure them opportunities for more significant participation in the life of the community and the nation than they have achieved in the past.—PAUL J. MIGNER in the *Phi Delta Kappan*.

SINGLE SALARY— *Good or Bad?*

By ERNEST A. MAY

NOT TOO MANY YEARS AGO schools generally had a divided type of salary schedule, whereby teachers in the secondary schools were paid a somewhat higher scale of salaries than were the teachers in the grades. In addition, most communities had those two schedules divided into "classes"—A, B, C—and, as a general rule, a teacher might be advanced into a higher bracket on the principal's recommendation that said teacher merited more money. This is generally referred to as the "merit system" as opposed to the "single-salary" arrangement.

Two conditions eventually brought about a rather general change to the present single-salary system. (1) Teachers in the grades were being compelled to earn bachelor's degrees for their positions, whereas for many years a two-year normal-school course had been sufficient. Secondary teachers had long been expected to present

bachelor's degrees. (2) Widespread criticism of the principals' choices began to develop much dissension in the ranks of the various faculties.

It was perhaps inevitable that the leveling of teachers' requirements would force a single schedule for both grade and secondary schools, and while there were sporadic arguments as to the relative loads the teachers in the two groups carried, it was eventually agreed that one group was entitled to the same base pay as the other. Thus the single-salary philosophy was born, accepted as a basic objective of the N.E.A. and a great many of the state education associations.

However, in the scramble to bring all teachers to the same level of remuneration, isn't it possible that many refinements of the older plans were discarded to the detriment of the public schools of this day? Merit no longer seems to occupy any place in the pay schedule. As Frank Spaulding, professor of education emeritus (Yale), was quoted as saying in a *Saturday Evening Post* editorial recently, ". . . The poorest teacher can climb steadily up the salary scale while the best teacher, if he refrains from taking the courses, is fated to stay on a lower rung of the ladder. . . ." Replacing the judgment of principals and others who were presumed to have some reasonable knowledge of the worth of those who taught in their schools, more and more cities are adopting a plan whereby "extra degrees and extra credits" offer the impetus for climbing steadily up the salary schedule to the top income brackets. Other criteria have little place whatsoever in the advancement.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Is it true that many conscientious teachers are handicapped in attaining salary increases because they are unable to take courses in education regularly? Many of them have to supplement their income to maintain an adequate standard of living and so are prevented from devoting much of their time to educational courses. You may consider this article controversial and disagree with the writer as does another author in this issue (page 241). If you do, a statement of your beliefs will be welcomed by the Editorial Board of The Clearing House. The author is a teacher in the public schools of Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

What of the teacher who is conscientiously absorbed in extracurricular activities and just doesn't have the energy or time to attend classes during the school year? And the conscientious teacher who exhausts himself during the school year and feels he must take the summer for recuperation? Or the teacher who, having a family to support, not only cannot afford to spend the money for summer terms but must earn extra money to support his family? Such a teacher, the backbone of the profession in numberless communities, must watch some of his co-workers climb steadily salarywise, and at the same time must try to maintain his own high morale in his job while receiving a smaller salary check for his work. The reader knows that those with whom he works are subject to the same reactions as workers in every other line of endeavor and that this unfair salary arrangement begins to break down ambition, enthusiasm, morale.

How important are college degrees? The writer would not cancel out the basic requirement of a bachelor's degree, nor seem to suggest that the A.B. or higher degrees do not represent advanced learning and capability. The former president of an eastern university, in an article on the subject of the importance of college degrees, said in part, "A college degree has reached the point of absurdity in many fields. Thousands of students now attend college not so much to gain an education as to obtain degrees which will serve as 'passes' to desirable positions and advancement after graduation." How truly that fits the thousands of teachers who take extra credit courses. What else can they do? Teachers are as human as the farmer or the factory worker and they desire "more pay." Since the rules indicate just one path to that objective—additional credits or degrees—it is simple good sense to accept the dictum. Scores of the teachers, however, will frankly admit that they have acquired very little to make them better teachers.

The eastern university president also said, "I remember making an inspection of a college where there were two persons in the chemistry department, one highly competent with a master's degree, and the other really incompetent but with a doctor's degree. Merely because he had a doctor's degree the incompetent man was 'head' of the department."

Is the situation healthy for our American schools? Circulate among the rank-and-file teachers in their small groups and sound out their opinions. Because there is no ground swell of criticism from the ranks of the teachers, are we to assume that all is well and universally accepted? Talk to some of the hard-working, capable teachers who are most frequently referred to by principals as their most devoted and dependable faculty members—teachers who spend their time and energy on service to the pupils in their classes, in special help, in extracurricular work, home preparation—and ask them how they feel about some fellow members' receiving \$50.00, \$60.00, \$90.00 a month more in pay than they do.

What is this doing to the general morale? Teachers, historically conscientious in their professional work, continue to do their level best in teaching their subject matter, but principals are beginning to experience opposition to assignments and sometimes outright refusal. Extracurricular work in the present-day school has become equally as important as the basic curriculum, but with no reward for shouldering this extra work the enthusiasm of the teacher has soured. Who can estimate the finer developments which *might* have blossomed in each school had there been incentive for teachers to undertake these "works of love"?

The American teacher is awakening to the fact that a conscientious, professional attitude alone does not bring him his just share of salary. He is following the narrow path set down for him—sloughing off the extra considerations for his pupils in favor

of taking extra credits so that his pay check may grow larger.

Author's note: Reactions to this article will obviously be mixed. Teachers who found salary progress barred because of their failure to measure up to the mark of efficiency for advancement, teachers who most conscientiously take all of their ad-

vanced work very seriously with a view to improving their efficiency—these, and others, will volubly object. But there are thousands and thousands of teachers throughout the country, described in paragraph five of this article, who will raise their voices of approval and hope that some adjustments might soon be forthcoming.

A Mother's Thoughts En Route to School

By LOUISE M. MOHR
(Winnetka, Ill.)

"I wonder what is wrong. . . . Nobody in any other town we ever lived in since Billy entered school was ever asked to come to school unless something were *terribly* wrong. . . . I wish Big Bill would take a day off and go, instead of me. . . .

"Billy insists he doesn't know what is wrong. He does only what others do. . . . Anyway, it can't be so very bad. Teachers always expect everyone to be perfect.

"Billy is me all over again, in some ways. I can still see Miss Lewis and that composition about our new dog. She said I was just careless, but I really tried to find every spelling mistake before I turned it in. She said if I really liked little Two-spot as much as I said, I'd try to write correctly about him. I never did like her after that, and it was worse after Two-spot was run over. . . . She didn't act as if she liked me, either. . . . It wasn't true! I *loved* Two-spot!

"Now why in the world am I thinking about that? I haven't thought of Two-spot for . . . well, for all of twenty years, anyway.

"I wonder whether she likes Billy. If only she does, things won't be so bad for him. *He* can't spell, either. Maybe that is the trouble.

"Maybe Billy is too lively. The books all say healthy children are lively. I wish I knew just *how* lively a boy his age is supposed to be and still be all right. . . . I wonder whether it is all right to let him have a light in his room when we both go out at night. I wonder if she knows. She must. All teachers know everything like that. . . . But she'd think I was plain ignorant if I asked. I guess I am. I know I *ought* to know. I'd better not ask, for Billy's sake. I wouldn't want her to think Billy has a mother who doesn't *try* to keep up.

"I hope I look all right. I'd like Billy to be proud.

"Funny! Billy says he kind of likes this school. He never said that anywhere else we lived. Maybe

I ought to tell her that. . . . No, I'd better not. She might think I was going to ask for special favors for him. I don't want them. His dad wouldn't either. He says Billy has to learn to stand on his own two feet. . . . He says they haven't taught him his multiplication tables properly, though. I wonder whether I should ask whether I couldn't help him with them. . . . I'd better not. They don't seem to believe in parents' helping at home any more. . . . Besides, she might think we were criticizing the way she teaches. She'd sure take it out on Billy, if she did, the way Miss Lewis did on me.

"Bother Miss Lewis! Why am I thinking about her? She's been dead and gone for years.

"I've heard they write down everything you say. I'd better be careful, and not get excited.

"I wonder whether she knows Billy well enough yet to know he doesn't know his tables. He says there are forty-two in the class. How can she? . . . Billy says it isn't in this year's work, and they do so many new things, things he never even heard of before, like social studies.

"Social studies! I wonder whether they are trying out something new on him, the way that magazine article told about. They really oughtn't to experiment on him when he can't spell and isn't sure of his tables.

"I'd like to tell her about all the swell things he does around the house to help with the twins, and about taking out the garbage and putting away his bike without being reminded, and. . . . Oh, she wouldn't be interested. That's not school.

"It was work, though, training him. . . . Anyway, we think Billy's a grand little guy.

"If only she likes Billy, *really* likes him. IF SHE DOESN'T, I'LL. . . . Keep your temper, lady! . . . Well, here goes!

"Miss Lewis? I mean, Miss Johnstone? I'm Billy's mother. You sent for me."



Findings



A TIDBIT ON DISCIPLINE: At last discipline has come into its own again! This was given great impetus by the entire September issue of the *Journal* of the National Education Association which was devoted to the subject of discipline. One of the articles gave statistics based on a national survey of teacher opinion with respect to pupil behavior. The facts are heartening in the midst of all the talk of juvenile delinquency. Dr. Sam M. Lambert says (p. 339): "Any assumption that most of today's youth . . . are going to the dogs is a serious mistake. Nearly two-thirds of a group of 4270 representative classroom teachers say that real trouble-makers account for fewer than 1 in 100 pupils."

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LINGUISTIC SKILLS AND INTELLIGENCE: A study was made by Dr. Edwin E. Vineyard and Dr. Harold W. Massey of the Panhandle Agricultural and Mechanical College (Goodwell, Oklahoma) in an effort to establish the relationships between such linguistic skills as vocabulary, speed of paragraph comprehension, spelling, and intelligence when the latter factor is removed statistically.

There were three areas of concentration in the study. The researchers sought to identify the following relationship:

(1) The coefficients of correlation (designated as r) between objective measures of vocabulary, speed of paragraph comprehension (for which the Nelson-Denny Reading Test, Form A, was used), and spelling (based on results of the spelling test in the Differential Aptitude Tests).

(2) The coefficients of correlation between intelligence scores and objective measures of vocabulary, speed of paragraph comprehension, and spelling.

(3) Partial coefficients of correlation between each of the following with intelligence

ruled constant: vocabulary and speed of paragraph comprehension, spelling and speed of paragraph comprehension, and spelling and vocabulary.

The study revealed a high coefficient of correlation (r) and positive relationship between vocabulary and speed of paragraph comprehension ($r = .621$) and between spelling and vocabulary ($r = .668$), and a strong correlation between spelling and speed of paragraph comprehension ($r = .408$).

The logical hypothesis arrived at from these figures was that some common factor might be at least partially responsible for the interrelationship. When tested, it was found that such a factor existed and that factor was intelligence. The next step sought to establish what relationship existed when the common factor was removed.

Statistically the evidence showed a strong relationship between intelligence and linguistic skills. The coefficients of correlation were found to be $r = .708$ for vocabulary; $r = .659$ for speed of paragraph comprehension; and $r = .573$ for spelling.

Comparing the foregoing data with the statistics when the intelligence factor was ruled constant, a decrease in r is apparent.

<i>Pairs of Skills</i>	<i>Partial r</i>
Vocabulary and speed of paragraph comprehension	.290
Spelling and speed of paragraph comprehension	.049
Spelling and vocabulary	.452

Obviously, the intelligence factor is important. However, there may be other factors involved not tested or revealed by this particular study. Nevertheless, the authors of this study feel the correlation is high enough to warrant continued use of vocabulary training to improve reading comprehension.

JANE E. CORNISH

What Makes Educators' Kids Brats?

By W. MARLIN BUTTS

"YOU ARE SUPPOSED TO KNOW a lot about boys, aren't you?" This question came from my eleven-year-old son. I replied, "Well, boys have been my business for fifteen years. Why do you ask?" His answer was another question, "Then why haven't you done a better job with us?"

This is a question that in some form or other has been in the mind of most teachers—and, I expect, in the minds of their children. It is a question that is often asked out loud by members of the general public. They wonder why these people who set themselves up as experts and counsel others on how to raise children don't do better jobs "bringing up their own kids."

My son and I sat down to look for some answers. We were joined by the other brother who was two years younger. It took most of the afternoon. Maybe all that I did was to rationalize in order to justify my own inadequacies. In any event we all rather enjoyed the discussion.

Before settling down to the serious problem at hand, I assured the boys that in spite of having a "double whammy"—a teacher-father and a former-teacher-mother—they were still pretty good guys. I admitted, however, that there were certain hazards inherent in their heritage.

I pointed out to my older son that his

question implied that he expected more from me than a son might expect from a father in another field. At first glance, it seems reasonable for him to expect more from me. Shouldn't all of the years of child psychology be put to some practical use around the home? The trouble is that the very training which a teacher receives to make him valuable to the children of others handicaps him with his own. He is taught to diagnose—so he looks for problems in his own children. If he finds no problems, he creates some. He has also learned that to do nothing about most problems of children is often the best treatment; the pressure of time helps to make him quite selective about the problems he treats on the job. At home, unfortunately, there always seems to be time to nag, at least a little, about each small conduct deviation.

Next we discussed the emotional feelings that a parent has for his family and the feelings that he has for those whom he meets professionally. Early in his training the successful educator learns that he can not "like" some children and "dislike" others. This does not mean, of course, that the good teacher does not have a personal concern for every child with whom he works. His relationship is the same as that of a doctor whose job is to serve each patient to the best of his ability irrespective of his personal feelings. To attempt to go professional on one's family or to develop close affections for children or other parents would be a violation of both family and professional ethics.

My boys seemed to get the point and recalled that under emergency conditions I had performed some pretty serious operations on other people's boys. They also remembered that I had almost fainted while helping a doctor lance a gland on one of

EDITOR'S NOTE

The strange part about this article is that it was written by a professor. If it were written by someone else, it might not have attracted our attention. Are you interested in finding out whether the author thinks that educators' kids are brats? If you are, read to the last line. The writer is assistant professor of community studies and social ethics at Oberlin College.

my own youngsters. In all cases the interest in the welfare of the individual was there, but the emotional relationship was quite different.

Son and father tend often to be much alike. The boys and I agreed on this, with a little feeling on their part, I think, of "Yes, it's true—tough luck for the kids." Since father and son are alike, they recognize in each other faults that would escape them in observing others. It is not too difficult to be objective and philosophical about the faults of another's child. It is quite easy to point to the faults of the father in explaining the conduct of a child—that is, if the father is not the one doing the pointing. When the child is your own and you see the recapitulation of your own errors in your child—well, it's just different.

From observation and from conversation, an educator's child picks up tricks of the trade. He early becomes an amateur psychologist. As such he sees through the methods used by his parents and by other educators, as well. He also develops some rather annoying methods of his own to use on adults and on his peers. One of my boys came home from first grade with a twinkle in his eye and a question for me. "My teacher says that our parents would be very proud if we got our name on the honor list. Would you be proud if I got my name on the honor list?" My obvious reply was, "How does one get on the honor list?" The twinkle brightened and was joined by a broad grin as he answered, "Well you don't whisper in class. You don't run in the hall. You don't. . . ." He continued to enumerate until ten don'ts had been listed without a single do. Then he repeated his original question. He knew from the beginning that he had me.

Those with whom we work at school know us at our best. We go to them rested,

prepared, and on our good behavior. Our family knows us at our worst when we are tired, depressed, and irritable. I did not have to argue this point to get my sons' agreement. Recently, a college president was addressing his student body. He said that students were always welcome to come to him with their problems or questions. He added, "Don't be afraid to come to my office. I won't bite." I was sitting next to his high-school son who good-humoredly remarked, "Maybe he doesn't bite in his office, but he sure does at home."

In our professional experience our failures eventually get promoted and we can start all over with a new crop. Not so with our own children. The errors that we make in dealing with them stay with us to grow before our eyes and plague us forever.

Finally and perhaps the most difficult is the attitude of much of the public toward teachers' children. They make a special set of standards for them. In fact they make two special sets for them, so that if they meet one the poor kids can be confronted with the second. If an educator's child is a gentleman and a scholar, he is pointed to with whispered, "Look at that sissy. Wouldn't you know that he was a professor's son?" If he is a more nearly normal type, then the remarks are, "Look at that brat. Wouldn't you think that a professor's kid . . . ?"

Several years have passed since the boys and I had this discussion. I dare to write this now because one of my sons just had a most encouraging experience. A teacher gave him his report card. She said, with no thought of being complimentary, "No one would ever know that you were the son of a professor." I hope that none of my sons, and there are now three, will ever appear to be the stereotype that many conceive a professor's son to be.

Action Research in Action— An Analogy

By
DON MATHESON, JR.

A SOILED AND HEAVILY PADDED group of young men walk gingerly across the tiled floor of the locker room on skidding cleats. Animated gestures and frowns are supplemented by an undertone of urgent discussion. All settle on the mats provided at one end of the room which is fronted by a large blackboard. Little groups maintain the low talk between themselves until the coach enters. Everyone quiets and looks up expectantly.

The team has practiced and drilled all week to prepare for this game. Each man has been schooled and perfected to the point of reflex in the fundamentals of his position. Each is competent as an individual and has confidence in both his own, and his teammate's, ability. Scouting reports have been digested and special variations of their standard plays were designed to meet the need. Yet, with all this preparation, the players are not satisfied with their progress. They have scored and they lead at the half, but this is not enough, for theirs is a good team and the men find small consolation in the scoreboard in view of their feeling that they are not doing so well as they are capable. The cheers and backslapping of the student body and alumni

outside are a consoling factor, but those who are really involved are dissatisfied.

This is analogous to the faculty of a school which is trying to do a good teaching job. The teachers all know their jobs and have confidence in themselves and their "teammates," but they feel that they can do better. The community is proud of them and, perhaps, pleased with the present program.

A good faculty, like a good team, is not satisfied with a winning score when it feels that better results are obtainable. These teachers look to the administrator and his supervisors for help—the team to its coach. They respect him for he, too, expects a more nearly perfect job.

The coach moves to the front of the room. His assistants and the observers, who have been stationed high up in the press box to obtain an overview, remain in the back. The coach asks sincerely about injuries and equipment faults. He knows that many players will attempt to cover up small deficiencies and that they can injure the success of the whole team at a crucial moment. The players have come to realize this and ask for assistance where needed. This is administered quietly by specialists and other players without interrupting the attention of the whole group.

This is an offensive-minded team, so the coach diagrams their own formation as opposed to the defense they are facing. Rather than go into the team's faults as he sees them, he asks them to analyze their own problems. These were the things that the men had been discussing when they came into the room.

The suggestions come slowly at first. Temporary arguments arise, but before

EDITOR'S NOTE

Here is a new way of presenting applications of action research. The teamwork used in football is compared to the teamwork needed in staff solution to educational problems. The author is presently serving as a teacher and member of the advisory council at the new Arrowhead High School in Hartland, Wisconsin.

long there is general agreement. Perhaps the defensive line backer has been playing "outside" during the first half, so that blocking assignments which had been worked out can no longer be used. Suggestions come from the floor as to switches that can be made. Throughout the discussion different members of the squad have gone to the blackboard to explain their point. Several alternative blocks are considered, but the players know that they will have to be tested on the playing field. Quick-switch signals are worked out between the players involved, so that they can adjust to a momentary situation.

Many problems are worked through before the team is ready to return to the field. The observers and assistant coaches make suggestions. New confidence is stimulated as the players leave the room.

This phase of the analogy simulates the planning stage of faculty attack on problems.

The administrator and his assistants are constantly aware of small individual needs and these are taken care of without disrupting the total program.

The teachers have a real interest in solving these problems which inhibit their most effective job. Success comes from this progress, not from a defensive attitude which fights to break even and preserve the status quo.

The members of the staff analyze their own difficulties and work together to construct a solution. Initial answers are not binding and may be modified as work progresses. All members become actively involved because they all share the burden of successful achievement.

As the second half progresses, many of the experiences the players had diagrammed work out; others do not. New suggestions are tried as quickly as plays develop.

The films of the game arrive on Monday. Successes are noted and new plays added to the repertoire as a result of the past Saturday's game. Scouting reports for the next game are gone over and work is begun with the new problems that the team will face. Lessons learned last Saturday are applied to practice this week. During the week the coach and several of his players encourage the support of their fans by meeting with them in the "downtown quarterback club." Here, last week's films are reviewed with comment on the effective changes that were made at half time. New problems that the team will face in the coming week are also gone over. Active support of these fans is aided by bringing them in on the plans.

The experiment and research carried on by the staff are completed and reviewed for the most successful practices that can be drawn from them. Recorded results, good and bad, are kept for future reference.

New problems are tackled, many based on results found in previous experiments. A continuing program of research is maintained.

The community is kept posted on what is going on and is asked for its assistance where needed. This insures support.

The football team works with real, immediate needs—so does the faculty!

The football team works with real experiments and adjusts as it plays—the faculty with a realistic approach to research does the same!



The Principal. There is no such thing as the high-school principalship in America. Rather, there is a range of roles, duties, activities, and influences which form various mosaics of performance which identify a position in each school as one of responsible leadership. To this position, when justified by formal appointment, we attach the title of principal.—JAMES COLLINS in the *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Tricks of the Trade

Edited by TED GORDON

LET'S SEE: What are some helpful school uses readers can contribute for the luminous or phosphorescent paint, tape, cloth, stickers, now available in variety stores? Starters: light switches, clock hands, keys, desk edges. What others?

PUZZLE, PUZZLE: For rainy days, geography lessons, art experiences, take some scenic post cards, paste them on thick cardboard, cut them into odd-shaped pieces, store in little boxes or envelopes and, lo, you have jigsaw puzzles with a purpose.

REVITALIZING HISTORY: "History was a dull venture into the cemetery of old events until we started a unit based on students' ancestors," reports Seldon William Spencer, teacher of eighth-grade English and social studies at Culver City Junior High School. But history came to life when the students wrote autobiographical sketches, developed questionnaires based on their ancestors, wrote letters to relatives, did research on biographical data, wrote a fictitious historical incident, made maps of family travel, developed family trees, brought in stamps, anecdotes, and old photographs, and finally wrote a culminating essay on "America: the Melting Pot of the World." Supplementary reading lists were given to stimulate outside reading.—As reported at the fourth annual Conference on Good Teaching, California Teachers Association, Southern Section.

REJUVENATION OF THE BULLETIN BOARD: Rejuvenate your old cork bulletin board by covering it with wrapping paper or colored construction paper and then cutting letters of construction paper to spell captions, such as What's My Line, Who's Who, Sports in Review, Overseas

News. Then pin the news items to this background. By frequent changing of the clippings, interest is maintained.—DELLA MUNRO, Lovenberg Junior High School, Galveston, Tex.

PEPPER UPPER: On days when you feel that no one appreciates your work, bolster your courage by reading *Unseen Harvests*, edited by Fuess and Basford (Macmillan, 1947).—EMMA REINHARDT, Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Ill.

A BREAK FOR TEACHERS: Try having book reports done on 3 × 5 file cards with three sentences of summary, three sentences of comment. File these alphabetically, and the student has a quick access to his reading record.—DOROTHY CATHELL, Abington, Pa.

CARD PROTECTION: If you use flash cards or other types of pasteboard for teaching purposes, you can reduce stickiness and soiling by sprinkling them occasionally with talcum powder and then shuffling them until they are satin smooth.

GOING IN CIRCLES: If you need to paint small circles or to make them in crayon or similar substances, just tie the brush or crayon carefully in the replacement part of a compass and circle away to your heart's content.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Brief, original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE.

Positive Values in Social Behavior

By MALCOLM M. PROVUS

FEW AMERICAN SOLDIERS IN A PRISON CAMP could refute communist ideology because so few Americans at home are equipped to withstand communist doctrine. As a teacher of American history, I am constantly confronted with the dreadful apathy of otherwise vigorous young Americans in the face of totalitarian arguments. How can we correct this?

Intense, intellectual inquiry and honest self-appraisal are essential if young people are to be equipped to put up anything but a paper argument against communist persuasion. Communist arguments are not will-o'-the-wisp confetti that can be easily blown away. Rather, they are the product of admittedly intelligent minds dedicated with a vengeance to a cause wholly believed in. Against such minds must be pitted the principals of Jefferson, Marshall, Walt Whitman, Woodrow Wilson, and the like.

EDITOR'S NOTE

A foremost citizen recently stated that it is difficult for people in a democracy to be as rabid about the idea of democracy as for communists to be rabid about communism. He continued by saying that democracy is a way of life to us but that communism is a sort of religion to the communist. If these statements are true, we need to encourage people to practice democracy in earnest and not play at it. Otherwise, how can we effectively combat communism? The author, who is presently doing graduate work leading to the doctorate at the University of Chicago, points out that well-intentioned expediencies cannot be hastily erected to combat communism. Instead, we have to capitalize on schools as a place for the development of democratic responsibility and intellectual freedom.

We can and must come to realize the significance of the timeless debate in which they took part.

Each American must decide for himself where he stands on the issues of this debate: the nature of man, his society, and his personal and social ambitions. A stand on such issues must be the result of reasoning rather than parroting if it is to resist persuasion and coercion. A program of positive, dynamic values for today is needed in the lives of our youth. School life must now supply the direction previously obtained from pioneer life.

Educators are in general agreement as to what the end product of their work should be; few will take a stand against our ultimate achievement of a community of men who respect the abilities and desires of others. Even the learning required of individuals in order to attain this objective is generally agreed on: (a) an appreciation for, and the ability to take part in, democratic government; (b) the development of a wide range of interests and skills; (c) the ability to solve problems in accordance with desired ends—that is, to change the environment in accordance with needs.

How these things shall be taught has long been a bone of contention among educators, parents, and all concerned. Today social scientists are producing evidence to suggest that "learning for democracy" can never be passive. It must be embraced as fervently as a flask of water in the desert. It must be discovered as the answer to a problem which demands attention. Current teacher interest in sociodrama, critical thinking, and class discussion is a reflection of this trend. The use of problem situations implies that students must be individually—and should be collectively—involved in a dilemma. It is the finding of genuine social

and personal dilemmas which becomes the prime responsibility of every teacher interested in assuming responsibility for the successful democratization of our youth. The job is far from easy, not only because of the insight needed into student behavior but because of the way in which a teacher's personal values are often involved. One cannot participate in the erection and analysis of a real problem without some personal trepidation. Particularly for adults, unresolved problems are much like skeletons in closets. To drag out of the classroom cabinet a collection of intellectual ghosts and goblins may seem hardly fair or proper, but it is just such bugaboos that are needed to give perspective and warmth to the living ideals we wish children to embrace. Only when our youth have experienced the magic of Western philosophy and intellectual integrity will they be able to combat the ideological demons present in the twentieth century. The greater the array of jack-in-the-box questions asked, the greater the intellectual awareness and preparedness.

It follows that if we are to widen the area of problems explored, we must also enlarge the variety of possible problem solutions. The wider the variety, the greater our range of vision. After *all* possible alternatives have been explored—with a minimum of interference from our value-conditioned perceptive apparatus—we can then make that choice which is most in accord with our own value system. For example, even though it is against our values to kill for what we want, we must always consider this possible solution to a problem since there have been occasions when this alternative was the only solution possible. Society has justified killing for the sake of an end by calling wars defensive or preventive or, at the least, essential. Surely today no one would hesitate to defend the necessity for at least always considering war as a possible solution to any society's problems. Once war and all of its conse-

quences have been considered, we must determine whether there is not some other solution or action the consequences of which are more in accord with our values.

Similarly, in the classroom, as we aid students in the solution of the real problems of a democracy, we must encourage them to consider the widest possible range of alternative solutions. This necessarily involves a consideration of opinions which may be contrary to our own value system or acts which society may firmly condemn. It follows logically, then, that we should permit the use of any controversial material in the classroom which offers a possible solution to a real problem being studied. If the *Daily Worker* argues that it has a solution to America's periodic economic slumps, then a class considering American economic problems must be encouraged to study the communist solution. Jefferson's immortal phrase reminding men of their right to "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness" has a ring of importance to it only after nondemocratic interpretations of liberty and happiness have been fully explored.

From the administrator's practical point of view, however, there are arguments against an unrestricted curriculum. Children may choose the bad instead of the good. Such incorrect choices may occur for no reason other than that a child has exercised his pixy curiosity to "try" something new. More significant is the possibility that students will succumb to the subtle logic of communist arguments or that the skill with which communist arguments play on the anxieties and torments of humanity will sway the emotions of learners. Such consequences must be considered and may or may not be eliminated through teacher planning. Ultimately it is up to the administrators and school board members, and the general public they represent, to determine whether our schools are to become incubators of democratic conviction or wards of passive social acceptance.

A NEW SCHOOL PLANT:

The Home School

By WILLIAM PLUTTE

THROUGH THE HISTORY of education, numerous heretical suggestions have been made, which, after reluctant study, gradually have become accepted theses and even doctrines. Among these educational propositions have been the shift from religious to lay school rule, the institution of free public schools, the legalization of minimum schooling, and the development of standards of school planning. All these, and many more facets of education, have helped to build a strong program, which has become one of the nation's most important fields of endeavor.

And yet, with all our constant striving for better methods of education, we are still in the dark ages when we look at the school plant.

True, we have taken the gloomy cloisters of the early academies and, with modern metals and chemicals, converted them to streamlined, symmetrically aligned edifices that announce they are "as modern as tomorrow." Every new school building that arises evokes a chorus of "oh" and "ah." And the adults, after their first annual visit to the Open House, repeat the liturgy, "We never had anything like that in school."

Of course they never had the amount of glass nor did they have the beautiful array

of colors. Possibly their respective libraries and gymnasiums weren't so large. But—they really did have the same schools: the nonfunctional, unimaginative series of cells that are listed as "classrooms." The teachers still sit at neat desks; the doors still have the wire-glassed peepholes; the windows still have the schoolish catches. Five rows of desks, eight desks in each row, with the desks made "functional" through rounding of corners and curling of the plywood seat, still face the visitor who opens the door to the most modern classroom.

We mustn't forget, though, the very newest of educational inventions: the angled desk that can be placed next to another, and another, so that a group of youngsters may sit in supreme courtish informality and conduct group planning.

And the forward-looking libraries, with round tables cast among the traditional rectangular ones, *plus* a neat nook (for browsing) that has chrome and plastic monstrosities, expansively referred to as the comfortable section of the library.

Yes, we must look approvingly on lockers, for *now* the old-fashioned, clanging trash boxes are beautifully modernized—with brown instead of gray paint. (And still clanging.)

Moreover, we have electrified the old, old hand-rung bell that still knells the end and the beginning of each catalogued portion of time but does so in tinkling chimes rather than in dreadful tolls. (Truly, this modern invention would have been better left as was—the tolling of a mausoleum bell is better fitted to the death of a period than is a spritely ringing.)

EDITOR'S NOTE

Should a school be like a school or like a monument or like a home? It all depends on how you arrange your prejudices. The writer has some stimulating and disarming ideas in this article. He is principal of the DeAnza High School, Richmond, Calif.

Where land use permits, we take a three-story building and spread it throughout a pasture, connect the several sections together with steel and gravel-covered partitions, call them breezeways and hope for the best. (This supposedly gives the students shifts at fresh air between periods. In winter they maintain their body warmth by running the various distances to keep from getting soaked.) But the whole picture makes a fantastically geometrically perfect design (the school plant), which fits well on a cover of an annual.

Now the burning question: Where is the realistic point of view? Where, in life, except in other schools, do we find a semblance to a school building, with the ridiculous type of furniture in present use? Even the former "one-armed beanery" has given way to neat little dining tables. Offices have departed from the rhythmic row upon row of clerks. Whenever possible, industry and business are relocating in buildings that have homelike architectural styling. Why have schools remained counterpart of our earliest edifices of learning? Surely we can feel that no progress has taken place from the Grecian days when the pupils sat on logs and rocks while the teacher walked among them in a free state. Of course, we can point to our half walk of glass or our sliding doors to the outside, but those adjuncts are merely stopgaps to a thorough revision of our school-plant philosophy.

What then should a school be? It could be many things, but the basic units in our lives are our homes, our places of liveliness, and our areas of play (recreation). Why shouldn't our schools conform in precept to these?

Some areas have evolved such schools, but primarily as emergency measures rather than a planned program. Throughout the country, where large housing tracts have mushroomed beyond the financial potentialities of the school district, the population was amazed to be confronted with

schools that looked like *homes*! After reluctantly accepting these school-building monstrosities, teachers as well as parents were shortly overwhelmed to discover that good learning resulted. In fact, there was an over-all increase in student attentiveness and desire. However, this idea (of home schools) has not been accepted as practical, since we all know that a school is not a school unless it looks like a school. Accepting the fact that the whole scheme is impractical, we can discuss objectively the possible merits of home schools.

Would it not be appropriate to have literature classes in a living room, with furniture in it of the type found in homes? Is there a possibility that mathematics could also be taught as effectively in such a room as it is in a blackboarded (or, as we call them today, chalk-boarded) classroom? Couldn't the domestic science (or homemaking or home arts) classes have access to the whole home school rather than be exposed to our functional row upon row of sinks and stoves? Possibly the industrial arts classes could have study areas in the garage or in a workshop. Special study groups could use the den in the home school, which could have its walls lined with useful library books. Physical education could find its place in the patio areas, with large group activities organized in the community center located down the street from the home school. The home schools could have their business and shopping district where business education students could be receiving practical learning in modern offices and stores.

In brief, the home school would be a counterpart of our living world. There would be little need for the cliché, "learning for life." This method would actually be living.

This discussion purposely pointed out the use of the home school on the secondary level; with elementary and primary grade classes the problems would be rather insignificant since the home-school method

is currently attempted for them in spite of the inadequacies of the rooms.

If an enterprising school district should actually entertain such a proposition, would it have success? It is doubtful. The initiative for a home-school physical plant has to start with our teachers' philosophy of education. We cannot gear our educational methodology to cells and expect a rationalization to a home atmosphere. Our whole concept of what is education must

undergo a revitalization. While we can temporize with our present methods, we must face the fact that the current school plants are merely façades for a pseudo-living curriculum.

Yes, we can state that our present school plants have served adequately for lol these scores of years. Still there is a better way of building a school—a way that may make the school much more purposeful. However, the debate must start from within.



Are You the "Type"?

One of the things that greatly alarms me as I become better acquainted with more men who think themselves learned is the apparently large proportion of such people who tend to categorize other folks as to types. There might have been a time in my career when I would have enjoyed being classified as representative of one of the more desirable "types" of persons. That time has long since passed.

Today I do not believe that there is any such thing as "types" of people. There are, of course, those of the male sex and those of the female. I am willing to be "typed" that far. There are those in their childhood, their youth, their adulthood. I am willing to be classified that far. There are those who are sufficiently literate to read the daily newspaper and those who are not. I am willing to be "typed" that far. And that is just about far enough. Further liberties with human classification stand on doubtful ground.

I do not wish to be regarded as the "scholarly type." The term has some unsavory connotations. Besides, I know very well that there are certain areas in which I am a complete ignoramus, although in other respects I am reasonably well informed. I don't want to be called the "athletic type," although I'm tall and my shoulders are fairly broad. The implication is too clear—long on brawn and short on brain. Neither do I want to be thought of as the "friendly type." Too many persons ordinarily catalogued in that category are

also looked upon as professional back-slappers. Furthermore, there are a great many human beings and animals whom I shun like poison. I don't want to be the friendly type.

I don't want to be the "handsome type." That imposes too many other obligations to wear the right clothes, to choose the right necktie, and to walk with an unnatural and artificially erect bearing. I don't want to be the "jovial type." There are times when forced laughter is almost beyond the bounds of my constitutional limits. I don't even want to be the "kind type." At times my whole disposition and morale gets a terrific lift out of some mean and low, almost inhuman but harmless trick.

The factors that make a man remembered are his differences. The elements that make him famous are his differences. The very words "distinguished" and "distinctive" imply differences, variations from the mean. They imply an absence of typical characteristics, a presence of atypical patterns.

Please give me credit for being too complex an individual to make description in terms of type vivid or accurate. Don't take away my individuality. I am not an assembly line product. My differences make me. They are the important aspects of my personality. I defy simple description.

P.S. And so do the people, little or big, in your classes.—BURTON W. GORMAN in the *Peabody Journal of Education*.

Events & Opinion

IN SUPPORT OF THE PAPER-BOUNDS—The increasing popularity of the inexpensive paperbounds as a supplement to the standard classroom texts causes us to pause a moment and ponder the reasons why this trend has grown so noticeably in recent years.

1. The paperbounds have come of age. The sensuous covers inviting the readers to partake of lewd and mysterious stories have given way, in part, to more dignified ones which introduce English classics, historical subjects, or others which are educationally acceptable.

2. The paperbounds are inexpensive, and yet they can take considerable punishment and still remain intact.

3. The paperbounds are coming off the press in a wide variety of subject areas and are readily adaptable to English, history, and social science classes.

4. The paperbounds can be purchased with the intention of giving a copy to each pupil for his permanent use. This is an extremely inexpensive way to encourage the pupil to begin accumulating his own personal library. With the proper type of encouragement, he gladly will part with some of his personal funds and purchase additional books for his own keeping. The cost is nominal. Schools which have adopted this practice report considerable success and are quite enthusiastic with the whole idea.

We should like to call our readers' attention to the invitation made by Pocket Books, Inc., on the inside back cover of our November, 1956, issue and to the frequent listing in our Book Review section of paperbound books received.

THE DISGRUNTLED ONES—"Teach your children? Who, me? No thanks." This statement repeatedly punctuated an article presumably written by a former teacher

who desired to remain nameless. Perhaps it was the mood we were in when we read this article that depravely condemned the schools which causes us to comment in such unrestrained fashion.

Here was a teacher, lately departed from some school system, who hadn't been able to take it any longer. The indignities heaped upon her were more than she could stand. The surly and recalcitrant pupils who disrupted her classroom procedures were bad enough. But the jet-propelled spitballs and carefully aimed pieces of chalk were beyond the call of duty; yet, these she withstood. It was the time when one of her students defiled her inkwell which caused her to leave the classroom, a most disgruntled person. In justification of her action, she anonymously penned this article, which appeared in the week-end magazine section of the *Bergen Evening Record*. And lest there be some misunderstanding about her admirable character, she said, "Maybe you think that I am just a frustrated old-maid school teacher who is so nervous and jittery that merry, mischievous children get on my nerves. On the contrary, I am happily married and a mother. I love children, I know child psychology, and I love to teach. But if you should ask me now, 'Won't you please continue to give our children the benefit of your skill, your understanding, and your affection?' I, with thousands of others, would turn away."

We are the first to admit that pupils, at times, exhibit antisocial behavior and some are so malicious that they must be restrained in a positive manner. However, the climate which the teacher creates and the control which she is able to develop determine largely the kind of behavior her pupils will display. The hostile, domineering, and rigid teacher invites hostile

actions on the part of her students. Respect is a two-way proposition. The teacher who shows respect and consideration toward her class will, in turn, receive the respect to which she is entitled. Then the occasional demonstrative pupil will be tamed by his classmates through their censure and non-support of his acts. We have yet to see a competent teacher lose her dignity and self-respect before her class. Competency is far more than knowledge of subject matter or even the ability to teach. It includes the effectiveness with which a teacher can create the desire within her pupils to learn. Mass classroom rioting occurs when this fundamental precept is missing.

Education has not suffered by the departure of this harassed teacher. In fact, it is in a better state because of her abrupt exit. A disgruntled teacher makes her job more difficult than it would normally be and her displeasures permeate the school, creating an unhealthy atmosphere. Every assistance should be given a teacher who may be temporarily disturbed, but once the condition becomes chronic and unreconcilable, her separation from the educational scene should be looked upon as an action of mutual benefit.

PUBLIC INTEREST IN THE SCHOOLS: The general public is greatly interested in news about the schools, according to a study just completed by Dr. Oswald Henry Laubenstein of Cornell. The outcomes of the project, as reported in the *New York Times*, indicate that the information most desired by the public centered around such issues as developing personality, teaching study habits, comparing the school program with that in other schools, and teaching moral and spiritual values.

The information least desired and best known to the public was in those areas with which they came in direct contact, such as the voting at a school meeting, the work and objectives of the Parent-Teacher

Association, the election of school board members, bus transportation, and school attendance laws.

A four-point program to acquaint the public with news about the schools, as developed by Dr. Laubenstein, warrants our careful consideration:

(1) The board of education in each community should sponsor a continuous, dynamic, comprehensive, and planned program of public relations to inform the people more adequately of the status of its schools.

(2) As part of this public relations program, emphasis should be given those programs and projects which will bring the public into the schools. An adult education program and a school citizen's committee might be organized in addition to the existing Parent-Teacher associations.

(3) As a starting point, because of the apparent present interest, areas of school services, curriculum, methods of teaching, and finance should be emphasized.

(4) Boards of education should conduct similar surveys periodically to determine the will and wishes of the people in the community.

DENTAL GROWTH, MENTAL GROWTH: A news item recently caught our attention. A Japanese professor's thesis that the development of teeth in children is closely linked with their mental growth has been accepted by Kyushu University of Medicine. Professor Saburo Shochi of Fukuoka University said he had studied more than 1,300 children in the last year. Children with underdeveloped teeth are generally mentally retarded, besides being subnormal in other physical respects, he says.

A most interesting thesis, but we wonder how often in our teaching careers have we seen young men and women with perfectly beautiful teeth whom we couldn't quite classify among the mental giants.

JOSEPH GREEN

HARD AND EASY SUBJECTS

By LEONARD H. CLARK

MANY ADMINISTRATORS of secondary schools have assumed that teaching in certain fields is more work than teaching in other fields. Teachers of such subjects as industrial arts, art, and physical education are often supposed to have easier jobs than teachers of English. At least they are supposed to do less "homework" because their subjects require less preparation, paper correcting, and so on. This assumption seems to be supported by the findings of several time studies and has been used as a basis for several teaching-load formulas.

For example, in one of the most careful and thorough time studies yet made, Jung found that the average teacher of agriculture spent 54.00 minutes in out-of-class work for each class against 32.60 minutes spent by teachers of English, 27.80 minutes by teachers of mathematics, and 21.20 minutes by teachers of physical education. He feels that these differences are great enough to warrant recognition in the computing of teaching load. They were used as bases for the subject-grade coefficients of the 1950 revision of the Douglass formula. The National Education Association's study, *Teaching Load in 1950*, as well as other studies likewise indicates differences in the out-of-class work of teachers in various fields.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The author, who is on the staff of Hillyer College, Hartford, Conn., is not concerned whether subjects are hard or easy in terms of demands on the pupil. He questions assumptions that teaching in certain fields involves more work than teaching in other fields. It is impossible to delve into this question without discussing teaching load, so he discusses that too.

In spite of this evidence, teachers of "easier" subjects have not been fully convinced that they live in beds of roses. They claim that their classes require just as much outside work as those of anyone else—if not more. They too can support their claims.

In the first place, the various studies do not agree about which subjects are easy and which are difficult. For instance, home economics is rated most time consuming in the *Teaching Load in 1950* study but only ninth out of thirteen in the Jung study. When the results of these two studies are compared, other discrepancies also appear. For the sake of comparison, let us examine the two lists side by side.

Jung	National Education Association
Agriculture	Home economics
Social studies	English
Science	Social studies
Music	Science
English	Business education
Commerce	Music and Art
Foreign language	Vocational education
Vocational trades	Foreign language
Home economics	Mathematics
Mathematics	Physical and Health education
Art	
Physical education	
Industrial arts	

Admittedly the categories of the two lists are not identical, and the National Education Association figures are based on small samples and do not consider the number of classes taught. Moreover, certain subjects hold their relative positions on both lists quite well. Yet the lists vary enough to cast some doubt upon the validity of the rank orders. These inconsistencies are further pointed up by the fact that still different rank orders result from other studies.

Another bit of evidence which makes the validity of such listings suspect is the

marked differences within the subjects themselves. Some teachers in any one field do much more out-of-class work than do others in that field. In fact the difference between the average work week of teachers within one field is greater than that of the average teachers of different fields. For example, long ago Brownell, in what is probably the best-conceived time study of all, found that although the median history teacher spent less time on the job than the median English teacher did, some history teachers worked longer hours than did any English teachers. There is no reason to believe that this is not so today.

Probably the amount of time a teacher spends in out-of-class work is more likely to reflect the method of teaching used by the teacher and the teacher's personality than anything intrinsic in the subject itself. The industrial arts teacher is supposed to have teaching duties which require little out-of-class time. The studies cited above seem to confirm the truth of the assumption. Yet a good program of industrial arts requires a full day. Not only must the teacher of industrial arts keep many class activities going, he must also prepare materials and tools for class use. He should also teach about the material used and its composition and nature, about industry and how it works, about occupations and occupational opportunities, about safety devices, safety practices, and precautions, about intelligent consumption of services and goods. If his program is to live up to

modern objectives, he will train his students, through his industrial art classes, to live co-operatively in both social and work situations. Surely if the industrial arts teacher does all this and does it well, his out-of-class work time per class must rival that of the teacher of social science. Well-taught courses in industrial arts or physical education may demand just as much time from the instructor as courses in English, in spite of the English teachers' heavy burden of paper correcting.

School administrators should be cautious about using any method for computing teaching load in which subjects are weighted according to their "difficulty." As yet no one knows that such differences truly exist and, if they do, which subjects are difficult and which are easy.

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The Student Council Petition. We see no justification whatever for the plan, used in many schools, whereby the candidate for council membership is required to get signed official approval from the sponsor, teacher, dean, principal, or from the council itself. We know all the arguments for such a procedure, and there is not a sound one among them. Such a restriction is but a reflection of the fears, jealousies, and misinformations of the faculty. It is unsound educationally, unfair, and illogical. Getting student signatures on a formal petition for candidacy is the opposite.—*School Activities*.

Consider the Position of the Activity Sponsor

By

ARTHUR C. HEARN

SCHOOL ACTIVITIES have progressed rapidly during the past half century as they have moved from a period of rejection, through an era of reluctant toleration, to their present status of being enthusiastically supported, in theory at least, as an essential part of the total educational program. The qualifying phrase "in theory at least" is used deliberately. For in perhaps no other aspect of school operation are theory and practice so often and so far divorced.

Here especially is it essential that the educator be concerned with educational objectives far beyond the stage of mere

recognition, recollection, or lip-service acceptance. If the basis for his leadership goes no farther than this, he probably will be little, if at all, concerned that the halls of the school have miscellaneous vending machines, the trophy case is filled predominantly with awards glamorizing one or two areas of activities over all others, the newspaper lacks balance in presenting school news, the classwork is continually being interrupted for meetings of various kinds, and the teachers are assigned heavy sponsorship responsibilities over and above a full schedule of classes. For perhaps these conditions have been this way for a long time and perhaps, too, nobody has raised a very loud voice to the effect that none of them can be defended educationally. However, neither tradition nor absence of audible protest can relieve the school of its responsibility to correct conditions which are out of harmony with any statement of educational objectives one might care to use as a frame of reference. The professional educator's role is that of calling attention to the indefensibility of such practices and of leading in the direction of sound educational policy. This article will deal with one of the most serious of the problems enumerated above, that of the cognizance which is taken of the activity sponsor's job in relation to his total responsibility as a member of the faculty.

It is common policy today to expect each faculty member to assume some responsibility in the direction of the school activity program. This has come about, in part at least, from the recognition of school ac-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Should all sponsors of extraclass activities receive pay for their duties? Yes or no? If yes, should their compensation consist of extra money or of a lightened load? Many school systems have decided to classify sponsors' responsibilities and pay them according to the amount of time required for the service. Whether that has a good effect on pupil activities is hard to say. In this article the author discusses his solution to the problem. If pupil activities are to be considered as an actual part of the school curriculum, then they cannot be considered extra. And if they are not extra, how can the idea of extra pay for extra work be justified? The author, associate professor of education at the University of Oregon, knows full well that the topic is controversial. Incidentally, a different point of view is expressed on page 223 by another contributor.

tivities (when well organized and administered) as vital and integral parts of the total curriculum. As such they deserve and need competent leadership if they are ever to approach their maximum potential. It is desirable, insofar as possible, that this leadership be shared and that faculty members' interests and backgrounds be taken into consideration when sponsorship assignments are made. Thus activity sponsorship can provide enjoyment and relaxation for the sponsor as well as for the student members. Furthermore, participation in the activity program provides the faculty member with an opportunity to gain a firsthand knowledge of the less formal aspects of the school program and to understand better the student members of the group as they function in an activity situation. Few would quarrel with the general principle of participation in sponsorship by all faculty members. Thus one faculty member might serve as adviser to the stamp club, another might assist the dean of girls with the girls' league, and still another might act as sponsor to the lettermen's group. Up to this point, no major problems are likely to arise from the standpoint of teacher load.

Let us assume, however, that in a specific school at a given time the journalism activities include a biweekly printed newspaper and a printed school annual; the drama activities include two three-act plays and several assembly skits a year; the music activities include four or five dozen occasions (it is often many more) when participation of a school music group is desired; and the athletic activities include enough to occupy a coach's time for from two to three hours a day throughout the school year. These responsibilities differ in degree from those enumerated previously. They make demands of the sponsor, in time and in energy, far beyond the demands ordinarily made upon, let us say, the club adviser. They make demands to the extent that many schools have felt it highly

desirable that some specific recognition be given to the situation. But *how* has the situation been recognized? Generally, in one of two ways.

One says, in effect, that school activities are really "extra"-curricular; that faculty assignments will first of all take into consideration the scheduling of classroom teaching responsibilities. Thus, if the teaching of five classes and assisting with a school activity are considered the normal teacher load in our hypothetical school, each teacher is first assigned five classes.

After this scheduling has been completed, the various activities are considered. With those making normal or limited time and energy demands upon the sponsor, the problem is relatively easy. But what about journalism, drama, music, athletics, or any other activity which makes similar demands? The school recognizes that these activities involve especially heavy responsibility (sometimes, unfortunately, in more ways than just in time and energy). The solution (!) is in terms of extra pay. Here, for example, is a teacher who, according to the definition accepted by the district, is already scheduled for a full teaching load. But this teacher is also given a coaching assignment for the entire school year. There is general agreement that this constitutes an overload—and a serious one. So the school in question adopts a schedule of bonus payments, presumably on the theory that this in some way "solves" a problem.

It should be relatively easy for the true educational leader, however, to recognize that the payment of an extra two hundred or two thousand dollars will not make the assignment one iota less of an overload. This practice of bribing human beings to attempt to carry superhuman responsibilities successfully can have but one effect upon the total educational program. Some, if not all, of these responsibilities will not be discharged satisfactorily. And if a faculty colleague fortunate enough to have a

"normal" load seeks extra pay for, say, correcting papers in the evening or accompanying the juniors on a picnic, who can say that he is any less logical than the "thinking" which sanctioned extra payments in the first place?

The second way of taking into consideration the demands made by certain activities upon the sponsor merits fully the attention it has received in recent years. This method applies in practice what has long been accepted in theory—that the school activity program deserves the same consideration that is accorded every other aspect of school life. In terms of sponsorship, this requires that each faculty member's assignment be considered as a whole. In the case of activities making heavy demands upon the sponsor, some means of comparison with the demands of classroom teaching is called for. Although mathematical comparisons have obvious limitations, formulas for measuring teaching load, such as that devised by Douglass, can be helpful. In one school, for example, the directorship of publications is equated, for teaching-load purposes, to the teaching of one class. This means that in that

school the faculty member in charge of the school newspaper and annual teaches one less class than he otherwise would teach. Similar arrangements have been effected for coaches, counselors, and others whose nonclassroom assignments are unusually heavy. All are on the salary schedule, which includes no bonuses for "extra" work—since the concept of "extra" work is not valid in this situation. The algebra teacher and the play director are considered as equally important members of the team which includes, as well, all other members of the teaching staff.

Has not the time arrived for educational leaders to implement in practice what has been accepted in theory relative to the school activity program? An affirmative answer requires that these activities be viewed in terms of the total school curriculum—that they lose the connotation of "extra," on the one hand, and that they not be permitted to assume or to retain the role of "the tail wagging the dog," on the other hand.

Every school whose program fits either of these two extremes has an educational problem of major proportions on its hands.



Effective Study Through Teacher Guidance

Teacher guidance, especially helpful to establish effective study, includes: (1) careful pre-planning, (2) making assignments which motivate the pupil, (3) providing concrete challenging materials and suggesting timely topics and realistic practical problems, (4) promoting interpersonal relations that furnish incentives for learning, (5) encouraging pupil initiative in setting their own meaningful goals, (6) supervising to see that appropriate study methods are used, and (7) opportunity for practicing and using what is learned.

Teaching is no longer an assign-study-recite pattern in the modern school, but the guiding of learning. The teacher cheats the pupil of part of his education unless he permits him to engage in all three of the closely related aspects of a learning

situation: planning the experience, carrying it out, and evaluating it. Guiding pupils' study becomes a recognized responsibility of the teacher who must present to all the pupils the study techniques and methods which experiment and experience have proved to be most effective. In the modern conception of learning, pupils attack and study problems of recognized importance. Modern teaching identifies study with learning. . . .

Through application of what we already know about learning and about pupils, we can teach pupils how to study effectively. Teachers and administrators should take immediate steps in their respective situations to concentrate on the problem and to work out ways of teaching effective study habits.—J. D. ANDER in the *CTA Journal*.

Book Reviews

FORREST IRWIN, *Book Review Editor*

The World and Our English Heritage by MATILDA BAILEY and ULLIN W. LEAVELL. New York: American Book Co., 1956. 752 pages, \$3.96.

In its present revised form, *The World and Our English Heritage* is extremely attractive in format and as such should appeal to the young student. The arrangement of the selections in three sections, from the familiar present in Part I, to the past in Part II, and to a comprehensive survey of world literature in Part III, should maintain student interest at a high level. The use of line drawings in the text to round out the historical and literary background, and to illustrate the stories, poems, plays, and essays, is particularly effective. The editors have managed to include brief previews of the selections chosen which should aid the student and make the book truly one "to read and enjoy."

Other interesting features are a section on England as seen through American eyes, and, in Part II, a use of contemporary material to shed light on the works of the past. From the teacher's standpoint, this book should prove stimulating and challenging. The guide, published separately, contains excellent study and question material. One unusual feature in the guide is a comprehensive listing of audio-visual aids available to enrich the students' reading. There is also a concise summary of techniques for improving the reading skills of high-school students which any teacher would find helpful.

The World and Our English Heritage is rich enough in content to challenge the superior student; yet it is so arranged that the average or poorer than average reader can enjoy the book and develop reading ability at the same time. The editors are to be commended for their understanding of the needs and interests of the high-school student.

MARTHA M. PINGEL

A Concise Survey of American Literature by ALAN WYKES. New York: Library Publishers, 1955. 200 pages, \$3.75.

In his introduction, Alan Wykes explains that he writes for a particular audience, an increasing number of readers who are interested in "the circumstances that have gone to (sic) the making of American literature . . . that have created the literary climate" of America. He then proceeds to survey the literature of this country from Roger Williams

and Anne Bradstreet to William Faulkner and Ernest Hemingway. And he takes appropriate short glances at most of the American writers in between—among them Freneau, Cooper, Irving, Hawthorne, Emerson, Bret Harte, and Mark Twain. Proportionately, he provides greater space to the twentieth century and rather unusual attention to writings by and about Negroes. In nine chapters, chronology, and bibliography the survey thus serves to review for many readers the nature of American literature, its significant writings, and well known authors. For others (providing they wind up with the literature itself) the survey should prove a valuable introduction to the literature of the United States.

Two aspects of the survey I find striking: (1) the careful and interesting treatment Wykes accords the European influence on styles of later American literature; (2) the many critical comments, or judgments, he makes about periods, authors, and works. Here's a somewhat typical quotation that illustrates both:

"The general indications are of a swing from Naturalism to Symbolism. The influence here is probably of Franz Kafka, diminishing imitations of whose novels appear too often to be healthy. For both Romanticism and Naturalism are positive in their force and urgency, even though they may both—particularly Naturalism—reflect decadence in their subject matter; but Symbolism as a literary movement tends to be effete in its method and self-destructive in its achievement." (p. 191).

Although I suspect Wykes's audience is the English reader, nevertheless for us his *Concise Survey* (probably better retitled *Critical Commentary*) is both stimulating in its judgments of American literature and effective in providing this summary of the three-century sweep of our writings.

PAUL COOKE

Teaching Language Arts in Elementary Schools by ETHEL L. HATCHETT and DONALD H. HUGHES. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1956. 426 pages, \$4.75.

The title of this book describes its contents exactly. Its sixteen chapters include the following topics: Nature and Function of Language Learning; Basic Curriculum Problems; Learning Activities in the Primary, Middle, and Upper Grades; Teacher and Pupil Planning; Speaking; Listening and Vocabulary Growth; Usage; Literature and Reading; Dramatization; Writing; Spelling, Hand-

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writing, and Punctuation; Writing Creative Prose; Writing Creative Verse; Interrelationships of the Language Arts; Evaluation; and School and Community Activities.

"A Functional-Creative Approach" is the book's subtitle. An attempt is made to relate this approach to the methodology advocated throughout. Careful readers will find nothing new in this method that is not recommended in any modern book which emphasizes the values of unit teaching.

Experienced and prospective teachers will find the chapters beginning with "Speaking Experiences" through "Interrelationships of the Language Arts" the most valuable because they contain both discussion and illustrations. Numerous examples and teaching ideas are presented in this section. One of the most valuable of these is a ten-page plan for a fifth-grade unit on Canada.

Four special features of the book deserve comment. The bibliographies following each chapter are annotated, selective, and up to date. A section called "Suggested Activities for the Teacher" follows each chapter. Experienced teachers should and probably would ignore this section, while prospective teachers in teacher-training courses would find a number of the activities suggested to be "busywork." Photographs of school situations average about one inserted page for each fifty pages

of manuscript. Those included are good enough to make the reader wish there were more. Two appendixes, one devoted to spelling and the other to reading, contain helpful material.

The style in which the book has been written is both direct and communicative. Experienced and prospective teachers alike will find this text practical.

OSCAR M. HAUGH

Your Language, Books I and II, by LA-BRANT, ROSE, PAINTER, BALDRIDGE, and GUYOL. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1956. 434 pages, \$3.12 (each).

Before the pupil opens these books, he captures the author's philosophy in the colorful cover illustrations of young teen-agers reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The first exercises are related directly to the learner, who is a pupil in the first two years of the junior high school. Orientation is the problem; and the pupil is the subject. Through simple activities, as he becomes acquainted with his class, his school, and his text, the pupil is made to feel that he belongs. The interest developed in the first lesson is never permitted to lag. The chapter and section titles, illustrations, activities, and the general plan of presentation help to make English a fascinating subject. The traditional textbook pattern is almost completely eliminated.

The illustrations have unusual merit. Scarcely a page is without them, and they are the kind that invites a child to stop and examine. They are of every variety; many are animated; all are directly related to and suggestive of the material presented. The chapters are replete with activities which are real learning experiences growing out of the subject matter. Not only do they have interest and educational value but they offer opportunity for individual, small-group, and class participation. There is none of the busywork of the old school in these activity lists.

Both books emphasize planning, thinking, and then acting. The old adage of "foresee and forestall" is indicated in each chapter. The pupil is not asked to prepare new material until he has thoroughly examined his own strengths and weaknesses and has arrived at a state of readiness.

While the techniques of listening, speaking, writing, and reading are emphasized, there is a fine balance of grammar, usage, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization. Altogether, these are books which simplify teaching of the language arts, yet create new interest for the learner.

GILE J. WARREN

English at Work, Courses One, Two, Three, and Four, by MARGARET M. BRYANT, M. L. HOWE, PHILIP R. JENKINS, and HELEN T. MUNN. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1956. Course One, 526 pages, \$2.96; Course Two, 522 pages, \$2.96; Course Three, 518 pages, \$3.12; Course Four, 526 pages, \$3.12.

The *English at Work* series should make a tremendous appeal to the novice teacher because each volume presents a course of study already integrated and based upon wide experience and research. For the experienced teacher with an established, patterned program the series furnishes much supplementary material made easily available by a detailed index and cross reference system. The series should prove equally attractive to students. It is typographically satisfying with large, clear print and lavish illustrations, many in color. More important, most students will recognize that it attempts realistic motivation of a traditionally difficult high-school subject.

Each of the four volumes has the same basic organization—fourteen independent communication units, each of which produces a student composition and oral recitation, followed by five chapters on various nonwriting language skills, such as dictionary study (appears in all four volumes), usage (also in all four volumes), practical punctuation (first two volumes), use of library, reading poetry, and reading prose. These study units are

scaled in ascending degrees of difficulty and culminate in Course Four with units on the history of the language and semantics. Each volume concludes with a handbook of grammar and usage, which the student reaches, presumably, at the end of an inductive, nonformal study of the subjects and which he uses largely for review and reference.

Recognizing that the most crucial student writing difficulties arise not in the techniques of writing but in discovering suitable subjects and adequately planning them, the communication units stress motivation and ideas. In fact, the *English at Work* series might be best described as "idea" books which tempt the student to explore and organize his own rich experience for writing and speaking subjects and only peripherally instruct him in form and technique. Constant attention is given to theme revision, for which the student, not the teacher, assumes responsibility. The object lesson of what someone else did with the same assignment and a section entitled "The Pay-Off," which uses detailed, pertinent questions to force the student into a critical analysis of his work, encourage intelligent rewriting.

The authors of *English at Work* series should be commended for their determined emphasis on satisfactory expression, written and oral, rather than on grammar, usage, and technique; for their successful integration of the skills of thinking, writing, speaking, and listening; and, most importantly, for their stubborn efforts to motivate and guide to successful completion meaningful student communication.

JOSEPH N. SATTERWHITE

The Modern Junior High School (2d ed.) by WILLIAM T. GRUHN and HARL R. DOUGLASS. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1956. 421 pages, \$5.50.

The second edition of *The Modern Junior High School* is more than a revision. It presents a fresh approach to an encyclopedic discussion of the junior high school—what it is, why it is, what it attempts, how it performs, what problems it encounters, and where it is going. Gruhn and Douglass make the reader feel its vitality. The junior high school becomes the living, squirming, struggling mass that it is.

Part I, "History and Philosophy," in broad, quick strokes provides the setting and describes the labored birth of the junior high. Part II, "The Instructional Program," emphasizes curriculum trends and gives a fair, if somewhat optimistic, critique of the meaning and problems of "core." It also retains and brings up to date a very excellent discussion of practices in the specific curriculum fields.

Part III, "Guidance and Extraclass Activities," includes a fine discussion of purposes, problems, and practices of the home-room program. The authors here bring into strong relief the conflicts between theory and practice; and provide positive suggestions for evaluation, sources of materials, and presentation methods that can help make the home room the vital force it should be.

Part IV, "Organization and Administration," reports existing practices and trends and sets a base for self-determination of needs.

Part V, "Looking Ahead," is a summary of the problems raised throughout the text and consistently raises the question, "How can these problems be met?"

This new work, which promises to be acknowledged as the fundamental handbook for present-day study of the unique role of the junior high school, is provocative. Although much of it is simple exposition of prevailing practice, this practice is thrown against a background of the forces that brought it into being. The reader finds himself constantly evaluating, defending, objecting, rejecting, and accepting, in the light of his own experience.

J. W. CRANE REMALEY

Living in the Social World (rev. ed.) by JAMES A. QUINN and ARTHUR REPKE. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1955. 536 pages, \$3.60.

The authors have kept well to their stated purpose, which is, "... pointing out the long-term trends in living in a normal society rather than the unusual and unnatural aspects of a disorganized world." At a time when much of the literature emphasizes the defects of our social institutions, it is particularly refreshing to read material geared to the positive purpose of these same institutions. For example, when discussing the social aspects of crime, the authors emphasize the value of protection and control rather than the destructive effects of violations. Certainly, however, no attempt is made to ignore or minimize defects in social institutions. Throughout the book the authors have attempted to introduce not only the basic terminology and concepts of the field but also to illustrate why and how our social institutions have developed.

The organization of material provides a gradual development of sociological concepts and terminology. Sound educational policy is followed by the presentation of understandable and helpful objectives at the outset of each chapter, by the inclusion of adequate summarizing material at the end of each chapter, and by the presentation of varied and comprehensive reviews before the authors proceed to the next unit of development. The final reviews

deserve special mention, as they offer a variety of well-planned exercises and problems for discussion. A recurrent section entitled, "Words You Should Know," provides an excellent review of vocabulary development.

In the present revised edition, data such as population statistics have been made current. Numerous illustrations that are not easily dated by clothing styles, automobile makes, and so on, have been used to good advantage.

ROBERT T. LEWIS

Civics by JACK ALLEN and CLARENCE STEGMEIR. New York: American Book Co., 1956. 552 pages, \$3.96.

This text develops an understanding of some of the difficult concepts in citizenship education by unfolding logically and in stimulating context those elements that contribute to the concepts. The acquisition of these ideas is helped by the numerous illustrative comparisons that draw upon the student's background and resources.

In the first section, the idea of the community is developed. Many sources are utilized in helping the student better to understand those forces that determine the community's cultural, economic, and political personality. The development of the relationship of the individual to his state and national government has the same logical, comprehensive organization. The authors have encouraged thinking on the part of the student by the consideration that has been given to those problems that are inherent in the maintenance and in the improvement of practices that strengthen our democracy.

I especially noticed that the constant focus is upon the student and the role that he plays in growing up and living in a democracy. The final section on personality, individual productivity, and vocational opportunities is an interesting and absorbing topic for the adolescent. The entire text uses this emphasis as a motivating force to encourage the student to examine the role of the family, school, and community in providing for his needs within the framework of our society.

The discussion questions throughout the text are designed to encourage objective examination of the pertinent ideas as they are introduced. A diversity of activities has been suggested that can be carried out individually or in groups and that will appeal to different levels of maturity. The bibliographies take into consideration the fact that reading can be enjoyable as well as informative.

In summation, I should like to use the authors' statement in the preface that *Civics* "is about good all-round citizenship."

EVERETT T. KEACH, JR.

Speaking and Listening by ANDREW THOMAS WEAVER, GLADYS LOUISE BORCHERS, and DONALD KLISE SMITH. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. 372 pages, \$3.48.

If a high-school teacher is looking for a new basic text in a one-semester or one-year course in speech fundamentals, he should give careful consideration to *Speaking and Listening*. The book itself would be attractive to the most indifferent student. It is colorful and has an abundance of photographs, drawings, graphs, and charts that are appealing and also meaningful to young people.

As the title suggests, the book is based on the premise that speaking and listening are interrelated and that listening is an indispensable element in every speaking activity. The plan of the book follows the concepts of modern learning. It begins with a challenging unit on radio and television and continues with a unit on speech resources. Five units follow on speaking and listening to discover and share information, to share experiences, to solve problems, to persuade, and to provide good social relations. The final unit on "looking back and looking ahead" re-emphasizes the importance of effective speech and the standards of judging speech.

Each unit is complete and the order of presentation may be changed if the teacher so desires. If the course is for one semester, the teacher may choose the units she feels most important to present.

The units are planned according to the modern principles of education and meet all the requirements of a language arts program. Problems are proposed in each unit and activities are suggested for solving the problem. The emphasis is on activity, and specific directions are given to the student in a language he understands. The style of writing will appeal to the adolescent.

LORNA D. BATES

Geography of the World by LEONARD O. PACKARD, BRUCE OVERTON, and BEN D. WOOD. New York: Macmillan Co., 1956. 498 pages, \$4.72.

This text for high-school social-studies classes is a revision of the earlier successful text of the same name. The reviewer found a surprisingly complete treatment of the major areas of the globe, including Antarctica and the lesser land areas of Indonesia. Teachers who are searching for an up-to-date treatment of world changes since 1950 will find them in brief form within this book. This reviewer was impressed with the scope and thoroughness of the discussion of recent events.

In the introductory unit, the authors have accomplished a realistic interpretation of atomic

energy. The unit, though brief, sets the stage for a study of human progress around the world. What follows in the main body of the text are descriptions of the work of people in building their countries or states. There is just enough of history, past and present, to make the text meaningful.

To me no geography book can be better than the quality of its illustrations, provided they are well keyed to the text. It is evident that the author's selections meet this requirement; for example, the B52, the atom smasher, the Navy's *Nautilus*, the reproduction of James Lewicki's "Ocean of Air," several shots of jet engine production, up-to-date production and consumption charts, and diagrams and special purpose maps galore. In the hands of either beginning or skillful teachers the book is of great value to the student.

For a reviewer to state that pupils will like a book is a bit presumptuous, but from my experience, I feel high-school students will like: (1) the suggested topics for discussion at the end of every unit; (2) the many suggested leads to communication media—radio, television, newspapers, and so on; (3) the study of maps, which takes on more realism; (4) the appendix, which is quite complete, making it unnecessary to hunt in many sources for up-to-date information; and (5) projects which challenge their abilities and stimulate.

Geography of the World, in the hands of a skillful teacher, will help our pupils lose the sort of "provincial mindedness" which other countries seem to feel we, as a people, possess.

HERBERT G. TAG

The North American Midwest edited by JOHN H. GARLAND. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1955. 252 pages, \$6.75.

The North American Midwest was written by fifteen midwestern geographers. Each one has developed a special phase or area of this heartland of the continent. Some indication of the scope of the authors' individual and combined contributions is given in the major divisions and chapter headings. Part I, by the editor, establishes "A Point of View" in chapter 1: the Heart of a Continent. Part II sets forth the common "Midwestern Elements" in five chapters: Weather and Climate; Settlement Forms and Patterns; Significance of Agriculture; Structure of Industry; and Trade and Transportation. The four chapters of Part III define the "Inner Midwest" as: the West Central Lowland, the East Central Lowland, Eastern Lower Great Lakes, and the Upper Mississippi Valley. Six chapters in Part IV establish "The Midwestern Periphery" as: the Upper Great Lakes, the Upper Ohio Valley, the Lower Ohio Valley, the Ozark Upland, the Lower Missouri Valley, and the Upper Missouri Valley.

The authors are to be commended for their presentation of original and heretofore undigested facts and statistics which were buried in scattered governmental reports as well as in professional publications.

Many noncolored, planimetric maps have been included, as well as tables, to show these data. No type of topographic map or photograph has been included. Photographs, especially, might well have been utilized to illustrate and justify or to clarify the chapter-by-chapter presentation in Part I and Part II.

Some overlapping and seeming contradictions occur in the text. These may be inevitable when independent analyses are made of dynamic components of a large geographic region.

This text could be used (1) as a text for an intensive study of the Midwest, (2) as reference for special reports, (3) or as a regional-example study in a general regional continental course. Some geographic background is needed to interpret the wealth of material presented in the separate and not too closely integrated chapters.

This timely and valuable text should be added to the working library of any classroom teacher who is interested in enriching the teaching of North America.

FRANCES M. HANSON

Going Places with Mathematics by MAX PETERS. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. 358 pages, \$3.22.

Mr. Peters introduces the reader to the Walker family and carries him on an imaginary trip to various parts of the United States. This narrative serves as a motivation factor and at the same time affords the author an opportunity to include in the text problems which are true to life. The problems are straightforward and clear and are usually one-step problems the solution of which requires no supplementary material.

The author's aim is clearly stated in the preface: "The aim of *Going Places with Mathematics* is to help the student who is not primarily interested in advanced study of mathematics to become a skilled interpreter of those mathematical ideas which he will meet often in his life." The text is written for the junior-high-school student who is low in reading ability. It contains a minimum of rationalizations—the author presents the rule, suggests the algorithm, and the student is expected to "go to work."

The content includes the expected operations with integral and fractional numbers and includes work with the simple equation, the formula, intuitive geometry, and simple statistics. An especially fine treatment of the solution of the three types of

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percentage problems by the equation method pleased this reviewer. The treatment of decimal fractions is unusually good and the inclusion of many problems of the household variety is commendable. The author taps the student's interest in the fields of sports, aviation, and geography, and throughout the book provides ample practice in maintaining skills. There are several full pages devoted to practice material in the text proper and an abundance of practice and test material in the appendix.

Whether it was the author's intent or not, he gives the pupil much opportunity to develop the ability to make judgments—a desirable outcome of mathematics instruction—in such exercises as estimating the lengths of lines, selecting the replacement of improperly placed decimal points, and analyzing recreational problems at the end of each chapter.

The format of the text is excellent. It is printed in large type, on not too full pages, is interspersed with an abundance of illustrations (in color) and photographs, and is bound in an attractive orange and green cover.

MARVIN C. VOLPEL

Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

Miss Bates is a teacher of the language arts at Central High School, Austin, Minnesota.

Dr. Cooke is professor of English at the District of Columbia Teachers College.

Dr. Hanson is associate professor in the department of geography at Michigan State University.

Dr. Haugh is professor of education and director of the teacher-training program in the language arts at the University of Kansas.

Mr. Keach is now instructor of education at the University of Vermont.

Mr. Lewis is a social studies teacher in the public schools in Springfield, Missouri.

Dr. Pingel, assistant professor of English and philosophy at East Carolina College, has taught and lectured on TV since 1954.

Dr. Remaley is now associate professor of education at the Pennsylvania State University.

Dr. Satterwhite is assistant professor of English at Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana.

Dr. Tag is assistant professor of education at the University of Connecticut.

Dr. Volpel is professor of mathematics education at State Teachers College, Towson, Maryland.

Dr. Warren is curriculum co-ordinator for the Westwood (New Jersey) Consolidated Schools.

Books Received

Algebra, Course Two by HOWARD F. FEHR, WALTER H. CARNAHAN, and MAX BEBERMAN. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1955. 502 pages, \$5.00.

As You See It by CATHERINE E. STELIZ. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956. 26 pages, plus 24 pictures, \$2.95.

Ballot for Americans by LAMONT BUCHANAN. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc., 1956. 192 pages, \$4.95.

Building a Free Nation by CLYDE B. MOORE, HELEN McCracken CARPENTER, LAURENCE G. PAQUIN, FRED B. PAINTER, and GERTRUDE M. LEWIS. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1955. 608 pages, \$3.60.

Civil Liberties in the United States by ROBERT E. CUSHMAN. New York: Cornell University Press, 1956. 248 pages.

The Courts and the Public Schools (rev. ed.) by NEWTON EDWARDS. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955. 622 pages, \$10.00.

Educators Guide to Free Films (16th annual ed.) compiled and edited by MARY FOLEY HORKHEIMER and JOHN W. DIFFOR. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1956. 560 pages, \$6.00.

Exercises in English Grammar, Book I by JOHN H. TREANOR. Boston: Educational Advisory Center, 1956. 130 pages, \$1.00.

Famous American Ships by FRANK O. BRAYNARD. New York: Hastings House, 1956. 207 pages, \$5.00.

Fifty Units of Basic French Grammar by RAYMOND P. MARONPOT. Los Angeles: Henry Regnery Co., 1955. 119 pages, \$1.53.

Financing of Education. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1955. Distributed in the United States by the Columbia University Press, New York. 284 pages, \$2.00.

Fundamentals of English Grammar by LOU P. BUNCE, 1952. Los Angeles: Henry Regnery Co. 187 pages, \$1.34.

Great Adventures by FREDERICK HOUK LAW. New York: Globe Book Co., 1956. 392 pages, \$2.40.

Guaranteed for Life by BRUCE ALLYN FINDLAY. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955. 137 pages, \$2.00.

A Guide for the Study of Exceptional Children by WILLARD ABRAHAM. Boston: Porter Sargent, 1956. 276 pages, \$3.50.

Higher Arithmetic by VIRGIL S. MALLORY and KENNETH C. SKEN. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn and Co., 1955. 418 pages, \$2.40.

An Introduction to Chemistry by HOWARD L. RITTER. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1955. 649 pages, \$6.50.

- Math. Can Be Fun* by LOUIS GRANT BRANDES. Portland, Maine: J. Weston Walch, 1956. 200 pages, \$2.50.
- Positions in the Field of Reading* by KATHRYN IMOGENE DEVER. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956. 165 pages, \$4.25.
- Preparation and Use of Audio-Visual Aids* (3d ed.) by KENNETH B. HAAS and HARRY Q. PACKER. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955. 381 pages, \$6.65.
- Principles of Elementary Education* (rev. ed.) by HENRY J. OTTO, HAZEL FLOYD, and MARGARET ROUSE. New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc., 1955. 455 pages, \$5.00.
- Private Schools, Handbook* (37th ed.). Boston: Porter Sargent, 1956. 1232 pages, \$8.00.
- Resources for Citizenship*. New York: Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955. 328 pages, \$2.95.
- The Scene before You* edited by CHANDLER BROSARD. New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc., 1955. 307 pages, \$4.00.
- The Scribner Plane Geometry* by ARTHUR F. LEARY and CARL N. SHUSTER. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1955. 510 pages, \$3.80.
- Selected Poems of Samuel Taylor Coleridge* edited by R. C. BALD. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956. 106 pages, 45 cents.
- Social Education of Young Children—Kindergarten-Primary Grades* (4th ed.) edited by MARY WILLCOCKSON. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1956. 156 pages, \$2.00.
- Stormy Weather* by LYN HARRINGTON. New York: Abelard-Schuman, Inc., 1956. 190 pages, \$2.50.
- Teaching High School Social Studies* by MAURICE P. HUNT and LAWRENCE E. METCALF. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955. 471 pages, \$4.50.
- Teaching Johnny to Read* by RUDOLPH FLESCH. New York: Grosset Dunlap, 1956. 92 pages, \$1.50.
- Teaching of Art in Primary and Secondary Schools*. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1955. Distributed in the United States by the Columbia University Press, New York. 312 pages, \$2.00.
- Too Many Promises* by RUTH F. CHANDLER. New York: Abelard-Schuman, Inc., 1956. 216 pages, \$2.50.
- The Tragic Days of Billy the Kid* by FRAZIER HUNT. New York: Hastings House, 1956. 316 pages, \$5.00.
- Understanding Our Government* by GEORGE G. BRUNTZ. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1955. 550 pages, \$4.00.
- Using Your Language, Book I*, by JAMES L. CONRAD, VERDA EVANS, and EMILIE L. HARRIS. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1956. 192 pages, \$1.24.
- When Teachers Face Themselves* by ARTHUR T. JERSILD. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955. 169 pages, \$3.25.
- Wilderness for Sale* by WALTER HAVIGHURST. New York: Hastings House, 1956. 372 pages, \$4.50.
- The Words You Use* by MABEL DODGE HOLMES, HELEN RANDOLPH, and ERMA PINLEY. Los Angeles: Henry Regnery Co., 1955. Book I, Ninth and Tenth Years, 103 pages, \$1.00; Book II, Eleventh and Twelfth Years, 116 pages, \$1.00.
- Worlds without End* by ISABEL BARCLAY. New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1956. 352 pages, \$3.95.
- Writer's Technique* by FRANCIS W. NEWSOM. New York: Coleman-Ross Co., Inc., 1954. 116 pages, \$3.00.
- Your Child Can Learn to Read* by MARGARET McEATHRON. New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1952. 92 pages, \$1.50.
- BOOKS RECEIVED FROM THE NEW AMERICAN LIBRARY OF WORLD LITERATURE, INC., 501 MADISON AVENUE, NEW YORK 22, N.Y.**
- Adventures in the Skin Trade* by DYLAN THOMAS, 1956. 192 pages, 35 cents.
- The American Presidency* by CLINTON ROSMTER, 1956. 166 pages, 35 cents.
- American Skyline* by CHRISTOPHER TUNNARD and HENRY HOPE REED, 1956. 224 pages, 50 cents.
- The Black Prince* by SHIRLEY ANN GRAU, 1956. 192 pages, 35 cents.
- Boswell's London Journal* edited by FREDERICK A. POTTLE, 1956. 320 pages, 50 cents.
- A Devil in Paradise* by HENRY MILLER, 1956. 128 pages, 25 cents.
- A Ghost at Noon* by ALBERTO MORAVIA, 1956. 192 pages, 35 cents.
- The Gold of Their Bodies* by CHARLES GORHAM, 1955. 320 pages, 50 cents.
- The Meaning of the Dead Sea Scrolls* by A. POWELL DAVIES, 1956. 144 pages, 35 cents.
- The Public Philosophy* by WALTER LIPPMANN, 1956. 144 pages, 35 cents.
- The Third Generation* by CHESTER HIMES, 1956. 320 pages, 50 cents.
- The Web of Life* by JOHN H. STORER, 1956. 152 pages, 35 cents.
- The Whispers of Love* by MARGUERITE DURAS, 1956. 192 pages, 35 cents.
- BOOKS RECEIVED FROM POCKET BOOKS, INC., 630 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK 20, N.Y.**
- Green Hills of Africa* by ERNEST HEMINGWAY, 1956. 201 pages, 25 cents.
- South Sea Stories* by W. SOMERSET MAUGHAM, 1956. 310 pages, 35 cents.

JU & the Newer Media

Associate Editors: HENRY B. MALONEY and MYLES M. PLATT

Danny Kaye Study Guide

Edward R. Murrow's "See It Now" will branch out to a spectacular on Sunday, December 2, at 5:00 P.M. (C.B.S.-TV), when the noted radio and TV commentator will present ninety minutes of comedian Danny Kaye's recent trip through Europe and Asia in behalf of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund. The social studies teacher is thus provided with an excellent jumping off spot for a detailed study of the United Nations and its various agencies.

Danny Kaye, traversing 32,000 miles through eleven countries, was able, as a "traveling ambassador" to the world's children, to penetrate formidable language barriers with the universal appeal of his particular brand of humor. As "ambassador" he talked to the monarchs of Greece, led the Israeli Philharmonic in the "Stars and Stripes Forever," and performed folk dances on the streets of Belgrade.

1. You might discuss with your students how the Danny Kaye demonstration abroad fits in with the wider appraisal of the extensive cultural and social democracy that exists in our country. Isn't a person who can make kings and orphans laugh a real example of America's everyday democracy?

2. Search out recent newspaper accounts of other "ambassadors of good will": the musical company of *Porgy and Bess*, labor leader Walter Reuther, trumpeter Louis Armstrong, and athlete Jesse Owens. How does the Danny Kaye experiment compare with the others? Contrast the receptions of our "artist ambassadors" with those of their more political counterparts.

3. The elaborate relationships of the various organs and agencies of the United Nations can be displayed in graphic form on a bulletin board. Write directly to the United Nations (New York) for material.

4. Play the recording "Ride with the Sun" (Folkway FP 109), a selection of folk stories from the Philippines, China, Egypt, Iceland, and Brazil. Do we have anything similar to these among our own fairy tales? It is almost uncanny how different countries have essentially the same type of children's stories.

5. Students can present reports on the activities of various agencies of the U.N. A con-

clusion could be drawn on the large number of diverse activities in which the U.N. engages. Certainly the decisions of the Security Council receive the most newspaper print, but is this the U.N. agency which is doing the most to promote real friendship and good will among the world's peoples?

6. There are enough agencies within the U.N. so that each student in the class could write to a different one for information. Use this information to prepare booklets on human understanding, bulletin boards, and reports.

7. Make a tape recording of the UNICEF's play "Understanding Our Neighbors" (United Nations Children's Fund, United Nations, New York). Invite other classes to listen, or pass the completed tape around for other school uses.

8. For the outstanding student: a research project on how the cold war is being waged within subordinate departments of the U.N.

9. Invite a member of your local United Nations Committee to speak to your class. If you are fortunate to live in a city that maintains some foreign consular service, be sure to utilize its facilities.

10. Develop standards of criticism on this latest "See It Now." How effective was it? Was it too long? Would the humor of a Bob Hope or Steve Allen be more or less acceptable? How does this compare with some of Murrow's other efforts?

M.M.P.

A Third Dimension for the Printed Page

Barbara Cohen, who wrote the piece which follows, is a Phi Beta Kappa from Hunter with a major in humanities. She and a fellow classmate, Marianne Roney (also a Phi Beta Kappa in humanities), founded Caedmon records in 1954 and have been busy ever since chasing authors with a tape recorder in one hand and a contract in the other.

Not long ago the *New York Times*, in a great burst of prophecy, said, "One thing these Caedmon records are bound to do and that is to alter the course of future scholarship. A hundred years from now, no Ph.D. candidate

will dare to be without his hi-fi set, and critics of the future (Freudian, New and semantic) will have a high time pondering slurred words, dropped lines and changed rhymes. And the House of Caedmon will rank with the Domesday Book and the Exchequer Rolls of the Middle Ages as prime source material for doctoral theses."

As old medievalists, we were delighted by the thought. And carrying it a bit further, we remembered our student days, and thought how tremendous would have been the experience of hearing Chaucer, of listening entranced to the accents of Shakespeare, Kit Marlowe, Voltaire (imagine his reading of *Candide*), Dante, and Homer. Especially Homer, who is now in such danger of being thought a woman that perhaps only an ancient 78-r.p.m. disk of his voice can save the situation.

It was just this sort of rumination, in fact, which led to the making of Caedmon spoken-word records. While we bitterly regretted the untimely death of Shakespeare, it was not—in 1954—too late to record Dylan Thomas, T. S. Eliot, Walter de la Mare, Thomas Mann, Robert Frost, William Faulkner, Colette, E. E. Cummings, Katherine Anne Porter, Tennessee Williams, Archibald MacLeish, Marianne Moore, and other memorable authors of our time. By racing madly around countries and insisting on recordings of the best studio quality, even when there were no studios to be had, we managed to record all of these.

But in those days there was no such thing as a market for the "spoken word." Although there had been isolated instances of commercial recordings of authors, and though the Library of Congress and the National Council of Teachers of English had been working in the field for years, there was not the least sign of a ready-made audience for such records. Some people, missing the point, objected on the grounds that poetry should be read by actors. Any actor, said they, has a more pleasing voice than any poet; and any actor can interpret more skillfully, too. And if we countered with the name of Dylan Thomas, whose public readings were attracting thousands, we were reminded that Thomas himself was a regular British Broadcasting Corporation man. Did we really think it necessary to hear any old author belaboring his own work? We did, of course. But how explain to such people the remarkable insight to be gained by such listening; the sensation of being in on the creation, or at least the re-creation, of the work?

Luckily, when we began issuing our precious records, we found allies. Foremost among them

were the teachers. There were those who wrote to us that "we teachers like them and our students like them." There was another who wrote, "I am a teacher of speech and have always found your records to be a wonderful aid." Then too there was a dentist's letter which said that he himself would raise a hundred dollars for another Dylan Thomas record. (In due course we raised the money ourselves, but never forgot the offer.) Since then, scores of thousands of people have joined with these in acknowledging the impact of the spoken word. With schools and libraries leading the way, all sorts of individuals are beginning to understand what the poets are getting at.

There is no question of the value of a poet's reading—or, in fact, of poetry itself. To listen to it is to know why it exists, why even the most highly polished prose will not do. We are coming to realize that most people are little better equipped to read poetry on the printed page than they are to read music without training. The voice, like the musical instrument, better conveys the subtle rhythms, clarifies the obscure passages, conveys the pure flowing thought motivating the poem. And this *can* be as true of actors reading the lines of others as of authors recreating their own work.

I emphasize the word *can* for a reason which everyone reading this will recognize. I think we have all shuddered, at one time or another, upon hearing a favorite poem or story mangled by some enthusiastic but misguided actor. That can be a traumatic experience for some of us. But imagine the effect of such insensitive reading on a child, who has got to take it seriously because he has never heard the poem done otherwise. As likely as not, the appropriate adjective "awful" is going to be applied not to the rendition, as we would apply it, but to the work itself. And that is sad.

We pondered a long time before deciding how best to solve the problem. We *knew* that the actors and actresses who had made reputations were genuinely fine performers. But just as no producer would seriously consider putting a star on stage without the supervision of a director, so too in recordings. We decided that the services of a director were essential to us—the key, in fact, to the entire problem. The man we needed must have the usual (or unusual) requisites—tact, patience, dramatic instinct, the ability to control absolutely every shading of the actor's voice to produce the desired effect—but above all he must love literature more than acting. The actor must be a superb instrument, expressing all that the author meant to convey and nothing extraneous.

We found a poet, Howard O. Sackler, who is equally sensitive and gifted as a director. Not for us the old rantings and heavy breathings of an actor charging his poem like Quixote his windmills. Among the records of which we are proudest are Basil Rathbone's subtly evocative reading of Poe's stories and poems; Judith Anderson's magnificent interpretation of Milay sonnets and lyrics; James Mason's rich characterizations of Browning's "Fra Lippo Lippi," "Andrea del Sarto" and "The Bishop Orders His Tomb"; and Boris Karloff's tenderly comic recountings of Kipling's *Just So Stories*.

It may be that in the course of this article the word "poetry" has appeared several times too often, and I shall have to make a mental note to break myself of the habit. True, we have a large catalogue of poetry recordings, and even two records called "Hearing Poetry," which feature readings of poetry from Chaucer to Browning, introduced by Mark Van Doren. "Hearing Poetry" has become a valuable asset in the teaching of high-school and college poetry classes, and because the records are accompanied by printed texts, eye and ear have been able to drink at the same springs.

We are now releasing some equally exciting material: prose, this time. For there is, and we would be the last to deny it, a quality of prose which takes on new richness when read aloud. From the Old Testament, for example, we have recorded Judith Anderson reading the Tale of David and the Book of Judith (together with the Psalms), and Claire Bloom in a young and fresh, altogether appealing, interpretation of the Book of Ruth.

And there is afoot a project even more ambitious. We are calling it "The Cambridge Treasury of English Prose," inasmuch as it consists of five long-playing records, each available separately. All of the recordings were made at Cambridge University, under the auspices of the British Council, and the four-minute selections are read with that exact appreciation for meaning and beauty which we feel so necessary to the success of a record. In the course of these excerpts, we go all the way from Malory's *Morte d'Arthur* to Butler's *The Way of All Flesh*. Among the delights are passages from *Clarissa Harlowe*, *Pilgrim's Progress*, *Pepys' Diary*, *Ruskin's Modern Painters*, a letter by John Keats, *Boswell's Life of Johnson*, and scores of other literary treats. With the first of the records (Volume One: Malory to Donne) will be packaged a 205-page book containing the texts of all five LP's in this series.

With the records already in our catalogue, plus other new ones (full-length recordings

by Robert Frost and Gertrude Stein, "The Caedmon Treasury of Modern Poets" read by the poets themselves, including Yeats, and a fine interpretation of Shelley's poetry by Vincent Price), we think we can begin to feel that Caedmon's epic struggle, even if it does not win us a place beside the Domesday Book, at least has resulted in creating a true third dimension for the printed page.

Study Guides for Films

Four of the most popular feature-length films in the "School Feature Film Catalog No. 5" published by Brandon Films, Inc., 200 W. 57th St., New York 19, New York, and Film Center, Inc., 64 W. Randolph St., Chicago 1, Illinois, are now available with specially prepared teaching guides.

Teachers renting *The Pickwick Papers*, all-star British comedy from Dickens' novel, adapted for the screen by Noel Langley and George Minter, will receive a nine-page guide including the following: production credits, cast, synopsis of the film, background notes of the production, biographies of the producers, comments by Noel Langley on adapting the novel, facts about Dickens, facts about the film, Dickens' life as reflected in *The Pickwick Papers*, supplementary reading list, discussion questions, suggested activities for students.

The study guide for the sound film *Elephant Boy*, produced by Alexander Korda and directed by Robert Flaherty and Zoltan Korda from Rudyard Kipling's story "Toomai of the Elephants" in *The Jungle Book*, consists of three parts: a discussion guide for elementary-school grades and a two-part supplement for teachers of English, social studies, film appreciation, and science in the junior and senior high schools who wish to discuss the film on a more advanced level. One section of the supplement is a study unit on Robert Flaherty and the documentary film. Also included are suggestions for student discussion and activity after viewing the film, a suggested reading list, a biography of Kipling, and topics for writing and speaking.

The teacher's guide to *Rembrandt*, the Alexander Korda film starring Charles Laughton, includes a wealth of material helpful to teachers of art history and appreciation, English and drama, history and social studies. Rembrandt's life, paintings, place in the Renaissance period, and character are outlined. The follow-up discussion considers the motion-picture treatment of his life, and offers opportunities for related activities in connection with biography, history, film appreciation, and so on.

A study unit on the Maurice Herzog film *Annapurna* called, "There Are Other Annapurnas in the Lives of Men," is available also. This is a reprint from the teacher edition of *Literary Cavalcade* for November, 1953, reprinted by permission of the editors and copyrighted by Scholastic Corporation. The aims are to help the student see, after viewing *Annapurna*, that "the value of any achievement lies not so much in the nature of the achievement itself as in the discovery of our own ability to triumph over obstacles."

These study guides are available for all four films at time of booking.

SCREENINGS

Lust for Life

The life of Vincent Van Gogh "... was entirely filled with two things: love and sorrow" (3). Vincent longed to be of use in the world, to serve nature and humanity with his whole being. Misunderstood even by those he loved best, he was possessed of a primitive abundance of *élan vital* and an uncompromising singleness of purpose which served mostly as a repellent to others. The contentments of a conventional home life were never his, for Vincent could not fit into the comfortable Dutch bourgeois world into which he was born. He worked for seven years as a picture dealer, bookseller, schoolmaster, and evangelist, each time hoping to find a place for himself; but it was only after the last of a series of failures in such endeavors, in the depths of self-doubt and despair, that he discovered painting as his best means of "giving," of expressing himself to others. His efforts were unappreciated, and even ridiculed, but this time he had found his calling. Painting, as his only means of self-expression, became not simply his work but the core of his whole existence. It took eight years of laboring apprenticeship and periodic discouragement before he could grasp the unique artistic medium which enabled him to say all he wanted to say, and to pour out his superabounding love, his lust for life, into the glorious work of his mature period, bursting with life and violent with color.

Van Gogh's story, as novelized by Irving Stone (1), inspired by Vincent's letters to his brother Theo (2) and by original biographical research, has been dramatized with compassion and integrity. The film has done what the book

could only suggest; it has breathtakingly, and almost three dimensionally, brought Van Gogh's creations to the screen. The paintings, borrowed from museums and collections all over the world, are interspersed with great skill as the narrative unfolds. Sometimes they are studied closely by the camera, and at other times they are realistically strewn about Vincent's studio. One never sees enough of them. The pictures form an integral part of the film and could almost stand alone as his biography, as the story of his personality.

We share Vincent's first awkward groping to draw correctly, his final mastery of draftsmanship and introduction to oil, then the astonishment of his introduction to the light and color of the impressionists, that controversial group of young painters who "banished the brown gravy in which Europe had been bathing its pictures for centuries" (1). Vincent's assimilation of their techniques was another painful stage, which crystallized at last into work that was not mere mimicking of Seurat, Cézanne, or Gauguin, but the perfection of his own intensely personal style. These were the sun-filled paintings that flowed with such rapidity from his easel the last two years of his life.

The chronological tracing of Van Gogh's art by the color camera is of such great merit on its own that a separate semidocumentary short for museum and school distribution has been composed of it. This film, appropriately called "Darkness into Light," also contains footage not included in the final version of the much longer feature film.

In filming the authentic locales where Vincent lived and worked, the camera has rediscovered not only the very scenes he painted, it has even matched the colors of his palette. Nuclei of the artist's environment, the places where he lived and spent his time, are exquisitely detailed, sometimes duplicated exactly with his pictures, by the craft of the set designer. It is curious how Vincent was concerned with such simple solid things as his bedroom at Arles, a chair, his pipe upon it—perhaps because these objects were among the few things that represented stability, rest, and quiet in his troubled life. With quite another purpose in mind, he painted the interior of the night café, in which some action of the movie takes place. Of this picture he wrote Theo: "I have tried to express the terrible passions of humanity by means of red and green." His landscapes express a variety of other emotions from the peaceful orderliness of "Market Gardens" and the sense of the country and smell of the

soil of "The Olive Orchard," to the symbolic swirling brushwork of "A Starry Night." But the beauty of these paintings must be seen, not merely discussed secondhand.

The entire cast of *Lust for Life* has been chosen to represent faithfully the everyday but highly individual people who were the subjects of Vincent's portraits.

It is a combination of these visual features that makes the film the kind of artistic triumph that has not been equaled on the screen, not even by *Moulin Rouge*, to which it will inevitably be compared.

But all this has spoken only of the background against which the action is drawn. What about the rest of the film? How well does it live up to its magnificent production?

Kirk Douglas, as Van Gogh, has obviously taken great care in the analysis and working out of his characterization. One feels him practically reliving the role. He acts with a sincerity, understanding, and conviction enhanced by a striking resemblance to the introspective self-portraits of the artist. Visually, he is perfect for the part; he has an extraordinary physical conveyance of the heavy, peasant clumsiness of Vincent's manner, so well described in the book. This is especially well captured in his scenes with Kay, and later on in the footage when he approaches the violence of his first mental seizure. Mr. Douglas has said of Van Gogh that "portraying his life was a shattering, but the most rewarding, experience" of his career (1). Only Mr. Douglas' voice, ever his own, with its particular accent and quality, failed to carry the role, and made his Vincent occasionally jarring to this reviewer.

James Donald is sensitive and moving as the fastidious, correct, and temperate Theo, so different from Vincent but the sole person who truly loved and understood him. Theo alone believed in Vincent's talent, supported and nurtured his genius until at last it found expression and, much later, recognition. Pamela Brown is sometimes disappointingly posey in an otherwise competent performance as the unfortunate Christine. Excellent in lesser roles were: Niall McGinnis as the postman, Roulin; and Everett Sloane, delightful as that frivolous soul, the Dr. Gachet, who imagined he could cure Vincent simply because he, too, so loved art. Anthony Quinn outdoes himself in an excellent portrayal of the vigorous and thoroughly egotistical Gauguin. His scenes with Vincent are intellectually the most interesting and the most compellingly written in the film.

Perhaps here it is appropriate to mention that the circumstances and background of Vin-

cent's breakdown are handled with admirable restraint. In none of the picture is there the stooping to mere sensationalism suggested in the early magazine advertising. The extent and diagnosis of Vincent's madness, be it psychotic or epileptic, are still uncertain and something for psychiatrists to debate. From the layman's point of view, the sympathetic manner in which it is explained and presented by the film, is sufficient.

It is encouraging to note that M.G.M. apparently changed its mind about the handling and promotion of its very fine product and decided to release it first to the smaller art theaters, where it can gradually build up an audience and the reputation it deserves, prior to subsequent distribution on a wider scale.

Norman Corwin, who wrote the screenplay, has constructed his story extremely well for the movie medium by largely sticking close to the book. Though characters and episodes are sometimes omitted, such cutting has been done with care. The picture has wonderful continuity and flow, but its best moments are in action and not in talk. Corwin's dialogue runs the gamut; the scenes with Gauguin are brilliant, but often in the rest of the picture he puts into Vincent's mouth lines blatantly over-written and unsubtle, just not true to the character.

But these are minor flaws in a sweeping and powerful film. John Houseman has produced for the movie public a wonderful introduction to the works of a great artist and a moving story of a lonely and tormented man of great elemental goodness.

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